A study of the motivation and demotivation of teachers in primary schools at the beginning of the 21st century

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A study of the Motivation and Demotivation of Teachers in Primary Schools at the beginning of the 21st Century

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Abstract

This study, carried out by a practising primary school headteacher, is an investigation into the factors that motivate and demotivate teachers in Primary Schools at the beginning of the 21st Century, and the extent to which these factors are affected by ethnographic and demographic characteristics. Despite the focus of the Department for Education and Skills in recent decades on raising standards, the literature review reveals the above sphere of research to be under-represented, particularly in England. The study used a mixed methodological approach, making use of strategies from the qualitative and quantitative paradigms in both data collection, and the subsequent analysis and presentation of the findings. The range of methodology and an initial pilot helped to ensure validity and reliability of the information gathered. The study focused on a representative sample of six schools and data was collected using questionnaires, field diaries and interviews over a period of six months. The sample was deliberately small to facilitate a detailed investigation: as research does not have to be large scale to be of value (Langveld, 1965). Although scope for generalisation is limited, it is anticipated that the findings will be of interest and of practical relevance, to other professionals working in this field: the relatability of a case study, being more important, than its generality (Bassey, 1984).

The data collected has been categorised, coded and presented in a range of matrices. Mathematical tests of correlation and significance have then been applied as necessary. The conclusion of the study is that the principal sources of motivation for teachers are, children being well motivated, interested or well behaved, and the experience of a sense of achievement that comes from a completed or enjoyable task. Conversely the principal sources of demotivation are the long hours and heavy workload associated with the role, and children behaving badly or showing a lack of interest in their work. Demographically and ethnographically there are differences between the schools and their staff in terms of both motivation and demotivation but no patterns emerged that were overwhelmingly significant. The study ends with a consideration of its limitations and the implications of the findings. The sources of motivation and demotivation vary from school to school, and from individual to individual, and although there are many

decisions over which a school has no control, much can be done at a local level within the school, to manage teacher motivation. The leaders of schools need to address the sources of motivation and demotivation separately in order to minimise their negative impact and to maximise the positive. On a wider scale however, it is clear that the government needs to provide strong support for the leaders of schools in managing behaviour on school premises, and that schools need to be given the resources to support teachers in enabling them to fulfil their roles effectively.

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1.0 Introduction

Rationale and context of the research

Motivation is crucial to both individual and organisational performance (Warr & Wall, 1975). Even a very able and well-trained member of staff will not perform effectively unless he or she is motivated. Robertson & Smith (1995) provide a useful 'equation' to summarise the relationship between these variables:

Performance = ability x motivation x training

The equation is not of course strictly mathematically correct, as it assumes that the four variables are quantifiable. It demonstrates however, that if motivation is zero then performance will be zero, and also that motivation alone is not enough.

Despite the obvious importance of individual motivation, theory got off to a slow start in the first part of the 20th Century, beginning with the work of Freud (1920), Maslow (1936) and Herzberg (1956). Study in this field began to develop further, as researchers explored the practical impact of motivation on workforces in industrial settings, for example, Friedlander (1963) in manufacturing industries, Wernimont (1966) in accountancy and engineering, Wanous (1974) in a telephone exchange and Evans *et al* (1979) in an automobile assembly plant. Only towards the end of the 20th Century was research into staff motivation widened to include educational settings, for example, Nias' (1981) study of teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction and Barnabè & Burns' (1994) study involving teachers in Quebec. The educational debate in the last decade of the twentieth century broadened further to include, the related concept of leadership, issues of effectiveness (Mortimer, 1995) and the notion of Total Quality Management in schools (Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993). Despite this however, the amount of research directly related to the motivation of teachers is still limited, and much of the research that has been conducted into teacher motivation has been undertaken overseas (Frase & Sorrenson, 1992, Gallmeier, 1992,

Ozcan, 1996, Dinham & Scott, 1997). Mortimer (1998) a leading and renowned researcher on school effectiveness in his recent publication 'The Road to Improvement' mentions the morale and motivation of teachers only twice, and both briefly. Similarly Teddlie & Reynolds (2000) compiled a comprehensive handbook over a period of six years, reviewing international educational research from North America, Britain, Australasia and the Third World, focusing on two questions: 'What makes a good school?' and 'How to make schools good?' and yet teacher motivation is mentioned briefly only once. If the focus is solely on the motivation of primary school teachers, available research is even sparser. As this dissertation was being compiled, the results of a survey conducted by the polling company Mori were published on behalf of the General Teaching Council (GTC): claiming to be the biggest ever such study, but this also, included teachers from all phases of education (Woodward, 2003).

Despite the fact that the research on teacher motivation is sparse, articles in management magazines regularly provide practical guidelines for headteachers on staff motivation. Fleming (1999) in 'Managing Schools Today' points out that our teaching staff are our most valuable resource and then proceeds by providing a checklist of points for action, including:

- spend time getting to know your staff and then support them
- communicate clearly and don't be frightened by debate
- make decisions
- display self-control and be positive
- lead by example; be considerate and fair
- listen to people
- spread good cheer!

Similarly an article by Pierce & Boyle (1996), also in 'Managing Schools Today', advocates the Investors in People Standard as a tool to improve staff motivation, and Smith (1992) in 'Business Education Today' provides a series of checklists for managers in schools on motivational techniques, and the characteristics of motivated and demotivated people. These are all

interesting, and possibly useful to busy people, but no research is quoted to substantiate the guidance given.

Any research that has been conducted in this country, following the period of intense educational change arising from the 1988 Education Act, is now quite dated, and that which has been undertaken, is rarely limited to primary class teachers. As Evans (1992) noted:

> '.... claims are generally impressionistic, and of necessity based on common-sense reasoning, since there is a shortage, particularly in Britain, of up-to-date research into teachers' morale and those factors which influence it.'
>
> p.161

The leaders of schools need to be clear about the factors affecting motivation and demotivation for a number of practical reasons.

Firstly, in terms of raising standards, a school can only be truly effective if the staff are well motivated (Mortimer, 1995), and staff motivation is essential if a school is to raise the achievement of its pupils. Successive governments have spent many millions of pounds in recent years introducing a whole range of strategies with the aim of raising standards, for example, the introduction of the National Curriculum alongwith a programme of National Tests, but little, or no attempt has been made to find out about the motivation of a school's key players: its teaching staff. Adcock (2001) writing for the NAS/UWT (National Association of Schoolmasters/ Union of Women Teachers) claimed that the Government was afraid to ask:

> 'To most politicians the idea of seeking opinions from the grass roots is unthinkable..... We need an enquiry to ascertain (a) the levels of dissatisfaction, (b) its causes and (c) the remedies. This does not mean a Royal Commission of eminent people pondering for three years to produce a

> thousand page report.... It means a direct approach.....
> with ample space for open ended comment.' p.10

Secondly, leaders of schools need to be clear about the factors affecting motivation and demotivation for purposes of cost-effectiveness, that is, in relation to the recruitment and retention of teachers. Hiring and training staff are both timely and costly tasks, and therefore it is essential to get the most from staff (Smith, 1995); schools being responsible for their budgets and their cost effective management. On 4th June 1993 Rafferty & Dore reported in the Times Educational Supplement that, concerned headteachers had heckled Chris Patten, the then Secretary of State for Education, on the exodus of teachers from the profession, and that he received the most hostile reception that could be remembered. Ten years later the situation is reportedly no better, as on the 7th January 2003 the front page of The Guardian reported that a third of teachers plan to quit (Woodward, 2003).

Thirdly, the leaders of schools should not need to resort to relying upon media speculation to inform important leadership decisions. All media reports have to be treated with caution as the following clearly shows. Hofkins (1990) reported that the number of teachers taking premature early retirement had soared from seven thousand, five hundred and ninety four in 1987/1988 to twelve thousand, four hundred and thirty one in 1988/1989, and similarly infirmity retirements had risen from two thousand, four hundred and forty one to four thousand and forty one over the same period. Union leaders immediately blamed the stress of too much educational change, taking place too quickly. As Hofkins (1990) pointed out however, this was not the whole story, there are other factors coming into play, for example, pupil rolls had been falling considerably and were due to 'bottom out' in 1992, consequently attractive early retirement schemes would no longer be available. The large pay award given to teachers in 1987 by Kenneth Baker, the then Secretary of State for Education, when some negotiating rights were taken away, is also likely to have had some impact on those considering early retirement and, lastly the introduction of the Local Management of Schools in the 1990s removed financial cushioning in

overstaffed schools. The latter may have concentrated the minds of governing bodies, which found themselves with more staff than they could afford to employ.

The motivation of teachers is clearly important but there is no consensus about the factors that motivate and demotivate teachers, and consequently how motivation and demotivation might be managed and influenced. Adcock (2001) concluded that until a properly funded and scientific piece of research is undertaken, no one would really know. Educationalists will continue to have to rely on contradictory messages disseminated by surveys and polls, such as those conducted by the National Union of Teachers (NUT) and more recently by Mori for The Guardian (Woodward, 2003). Smithers (2001) writing in The Guardian claimed that behaviour in schools was deteriorating, with children as young as three making teachers' lives hell, and that the resulting poor morale was driving many teachers into other jobs and further fuelling the teacher shortage. McEvoy (2001), the General Secretary for the NUT, unequivocally stated that unacceptable pupil behaviour must be a high priority for the government to tackle if its adverse affect on recruitment and retention of teachers is to be addressed. Other reports suggest other reasons for the exodus from teaching, but in reality no one is sure. Is it about pay? In 1985 Garner reported in the Times Educational Supplement, from a conference of the Secondary Headteachers' Association taking place in Nottingham, of a slump in morale that was affecting both staff and pupils, with teachers leaving the profession for better paid jobs in industry and elsewhere. What it claimed was needed, was for teachers to have their salaries restructured, with a new professional contract and regular assessments. This proposal was apparently agreed with no votes recorded against. Surely with the introduction of Threshold Assessment, the Leadership Spine and Performance Management, isn't this what the profession now has? But is it leading to a more motivated teaching profession? Others claim that teachers today face unrealistic expectations, which ultimately result in guilt and strain when teachers and schools cannot deliver all that is demanded of them. As long ago as 1978, Hargreaves noted that there had been a broadening of educational objectives, in which teachers stand in for parents, policeman, priests and social workers. Dinham

& Scott (1998) also concluded that teachers were increasingly feeling inadequate because of the greater responsibilities placed upon them. To some extent teachers seem to have been handed an impossible task, being expected to be miracle workers of modern society. This leads to stress, and stress levels are a serious consideration for employers in the 21st Century and as Galloway *et al* (1982) found:

> 'teachers who reported a high overall level of stress from their work, tend to report a low overall satisfaction level.'
>
> p.206

Is the apparent disillusionment with teaching therefore about pay, or are teachers demotivated by children's behaviour, the apparently unrealistic expectations placed upon them or other factors not yet the subject of media speculation? Answers to these fundamental questions are needed and research based in the current climate of educational change in English primary schools is needed to confirm them.

Having determined the nature of the issues impacting upon motivation and demotivation, and in particular the factors over which the leaders of schools have an influence, clarity about how these factors might be affected by ethnographic and demographic characteristics will provide additional insight. As mentioned previously, Hofkins (1990) reported that the number of teachers taking premature early retirement had soared between 1987 and 1989, and Blackbourne (1990) claimed thirty *per cent* of primary teachers wanted to leave the teaching profession in Cambridgeshire. To what extent are age and other ethnographic characteristics a factor in motivation? Does the location and socio-economic area of a school impact on the motivation of the teaching staff? Whilst ethnographic and demographic characteristics are rarely prone to modification; knowledge of their significance provides the leaders of schools with valuable information for influencing the motivational levels of individual teachers, and in managing a particular demographic characteristic of a school that is likely to be demotivational.

Should a headteacher, for example, encourage a young single female teacher to take on additional responsibility? Is the individual concerned likely to feel 'put upon' or they likely to be motivated by the challenge? What motivational issues might a new head need to manage, following his/her appointment to a one-form entry primary school on a council estate? Recent research to guide such decisions is sparse.

It is therefore to the subject of teacher motivation in primary schools at the beginning of the 21st Century that the author of this study has turned her attention. The study being reported here will not only confirm or counter the findings of previous research in this field; it will also help to fill the gap in such research in this country, and help to provide the leaders of schools with clear indicators of those factors that really matter, and those over which they can exercise influence. The purpose of the present research is to explore possible answers to these questions, to update the findings of existing research, and to help clarify the situation where conflicting findings exist; hence providing a framework of facts, rather than speculation, relevant to education today and on which leadership decisions can be based.

1.2 The overall aims of the research and the approach adopted

The purpose of this study was to identify the factors that motivate and demotivate teachers in primary schools at the beginning of the 21st Century, through an ethnographic-style study, that makes use of approaches from both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. This has resulted in conclusions that arise from, and are essentially grounded in, data collected in schools today. Grounded theory in its purest form is defined by Strauss & Corbin (1990) as: a study in which the researcher derives a theory by using multiple stages of data collection, and by the subsequent refinement and interrelationship of categories of information. As the findings are based in the reality of today, emerging from these findings are practical implications both, locally, for the leadership of the school and, on a national level, strategies for the DfES in helping all schools to maximise the motivation of their teachers. Both of these outcomes should result in

improved teacher recruitment and retention, which in turn will help to maximize the effectiveness of primary schools.

1.3 The research questions

Research into the motivation of teachers in primary schools is limited, and in relation to factors that are demotivational, even more so. Much of that, which has been undertaken, has been overseas or, has become outdated as the 1988 Education Act has been fully implemented. The initial question therefore was to determine:

'What motivates and demotivates teachers in the primary sector at the beginning of the 21st Century?'

The study explored these issues to determine whether the models proposed by previous researchers and theorists, such as Maslow (1943), Herzberg (1958), Lortie (1975) and Dinham & Scott (1998), enabled additional insights useful to the leaders within primary schools today. In particular the evidence was analysed to determine the relative impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic being defined in the dictionary (Collins 1987) as, 'that which is inherent in the task', whereas extrinsic is defined as something which, 'originates from outside'. The second question was therefore:

Can the sources of motivation and demotivation be effectively divided into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, or is it helpful to create a third category, as other researchers have found?

At the beginning of the 21st Century; a time when schools are increasingly accountable for the standards achieved, the recruitment and retention of teachers is a significant consideration for the leaders of schools. Recruitment is a costly and time-consuming task, and therefore the motivation and retention is an important cost-effectiveness issue for school leaders. The present research attempted to determine the extent to which motivation and demotivation are affected by the ethnographic characteristics

of respondents, that is, those teachers taking part in the research. Are there implications for those responsible for appointing teachers in primary schools? How do motivational and demotivational issues vary from one individual teacher to another? Notwithstanding the caveats outlined above, existing research in relation to ethnographic influences offers a range of conflicting conclusions, and therefore, the third question was:

To what extent is the motivation and demotivation of teachers in primary schools affected by ethnographic characteristics such as gender, age, religion, ethnicity, qualifications, length of service, marital status, and age and number of children at home?

Media attention has grown in recent years with the publication of league tables and the results of inspections carried out by The Office for Standards in Training and Educational Development (OFSTED), and consequently the retention of good teachers is of particular interest to the leaders of schools that are typically more challenging. Chapman (1983) noted for example, that teachers in schools which have been the subjects of considerable criticism by the media perceive that their social status has been diminished, thereby making it more difficult to recruit and retain quality teachers in such circumstances. In relation to these issues, the data was analysed to determine, whether the demographic characteristics of the schools, that is, their size, location, organisation, or the quality of their leadership, emerged as issues in relation to teacher motivation and, the resulting implications for school leadership. The fourth and final question was therefore:

What influence do the demographic characteristics of the schools, such as size, location, leadership and organisation have on motivation and demotivation?

The following section provides the reader with an overview of the theory and research conducted into motivation to date, and its context within recent history at the beginning of the 21st Century. This is then followed by an

exploration of previous theory and relevant research in this field, in more detail. The Literature Review will of necessity draw on research from around the world, and other spheres of industry, but as Nias' (1981) study of ninety-three primary school teachers indicates, in relation to job satisfaction, the findings do not differ significantly from workers in other fields.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Scope of the Literature Review

The year 1988 was chosen initially, as a threshold for this literature review, because of its landmark significance in the development of the English education system in recent years.

> 'The 1988 Education Act impales teachers with a workload unimaginable in 1986, not only is school set against school ..... attendance at meetings, record keeping, examination moderation, admin and in-service training have greatly increased.' Andain (1990) p.10

It is of course acknowledged that many of the developments contained within this Act did not become law immediately, but were progressively introduced in the ensuing decade.

The Literature Review was refined further by focusing on the impact of management and leadership on teacher motivation. The psychology of motivation is clearly relevant, but this aspect is already well researched, however it cannot be ignored and consequently the Literature Review also includes a brief review of some of the better-known theories, and their practical relevance to the motivation of teachers in relation to the leadership and management of schools today.

The Literature Review focuses more specifically, on teacher motivation in primary schools. This sector of education has been highlighted because of its key importance relative to raising attainment. If children are given insufficient grounding in the basic skills and are not provided with the opportunity to develop positive attitudes to learning, they are less likely to

acquire the skills required in the workplace. Existing research into teacher motivation has either tended to focus on the secondary or higher education sectors, or to be non-specific in this respect.

As mentioned previously however, due to the limited availability of relevant research within primary schools in this country, as the review developed it has been necessary to include other relevant work pre-dating 1988, from other phases of education, and also studies from outside the sphere of education. A lot of the material cited in this review is from abroad, particularly in the United States of America. It is acknowledged that although the context and climate of these other studies may be different, the points arising are felt to be of value, particularly as there is not a vast amount of research on teacher motivation (Tin Low & Marican, 1992) in this country.

Following the definition of some relevant terms, the Literature Review begins, as explained previously, by briefly exploring some of the more commonly used models of motivational psychology: including principally, 'process' and 'content' theories, and a consideration of innate motivational tendencies. The review then examines the research that has been conducted in school under four main headings, from which the four research questions subsequently emerged. These are namely: motivational and demotivational issues and the impact of leadership; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; ethnographic differences; and finally demographic variations and organisational motivation.

2.2 Definitions

The issue of definitions is extremely important, but defining motivation is something that is notoriously difficult to do.

Molander & Winterton (1994) provide a possible definition of motivation as,

> 'the willingness of employees to expend effort and exhibit desired patterns of work behaviour in terms of levels of

> performance and commitment to the enterprise.'
>
> p.133

Whilst conducting the literature review it became apparent however that a number of other words are used synonymously with motivation, and therefore, for this reason a range of other related definitions are considered below.

Evans (1992), another researcher of teacher motivation in primary schools, quotes Guion's (1958) definition of morale as being one that she found useful,

> 'Morale is the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation.'
> p.166

Kanter (1968) defines commitment as the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organised patterns of behaviour. He claims that commitment to the teaching profession requires the approach of 'control commitment'. This is defined as the commitment to norms, values and inner convictions which morally obligate the individual, that is; an individual exerts a high degree of effort not because of any personal benefit, but because they believe it is right and expected.

Lawler (1973) defines the level of job satisfaction as,

> 'the difference between all the things that a person feels he should receive from his job and all those things he actually does receive.' p.77

The similarity between this definition and Guion's (1958) definition of morale is noticeable.

The question therefore is - what is the difference between morale, motivation, commitment and job satisfaction? Is there any difference?

Evans (1992) distinguishes between job satisfaction and morale in terms of temporal orientation, the former being present orientated, whereas the other is forward looking. Satisfaction is a response to a situation, whereas morale is anticipatory.

The reading conducted for the present research would suggest, that in general, all four terms tend to be used interchangeably. What is clear, however, is that motivation is not just about being 'happy' or 'satisfied' (Dinham & Scott, 1998); it is, as Molander and Winterton (1994) indicate, about the willingness of a member of staff to expend effort in the fulfillment of his/her role.

It is possible, that feeling happy or satisfied are prerequisites to feeling motivated and vice versa, and that unhappiness and dissatisfaction are prerequisites of demotivation. Therefore, if staff interpret the concepts slightly differently, it is unlikely that the validity or reliability of the study will be affected.

Whatever definition is used it is important that the researcher, the respondents, that is, the teachers participating in the research, and subsequently the readers, have a shared understanding of any definitions. For the respondents this understanding may not be conveyed through terminology, but in the methodology that is used and the way that questions are posed.

> 'Construct development is a prerequisite of achieving construct validity...if researchers are to be sure of actually investigating what their research was intending to investigate'. p. 329 (Evans, 1997)

For the purposes of the present research, the definition quoted previously from Molander & Winterton (1994) is the one that is most akin to the researcher's own understanding, and is therefore, the one that has been chosen to guide the development of this research project.

The other term that is useful, in promoting an understanding of the literature related to motivation, is 'school effectiveness'. A term that has come into increasingly common usage as schools set, and seek to meet targets, and in doing so keep all aspects of school life under regular review:

> 'an effective school is one in which pupils progress further than might be expected from consideration of its intake' p.150 (Mortimer, 1995)

With regards to the study undertaken here, it is believed that a school cannot be truly effective, and will be unable to achieve high standards for pupils, unless its teachers are well motivated. Having determined what the researcher understands by motivation in the context of the research being undertaken here, this literature review will now explore some of the theories that have evolved in relation to motivation.

2.3 Theories of Motivation

Molander & Winterton (1994) claim that motivational theories are conventionally divided into two groups: content theories and process theories. As we shall see, however, the terminology by which they are referred to may be different. Content theories concern the driving factors within a person, that is, they attempt to explain what energises or initiates behaviour. These theories being synonymous with 'control commitment' as defined by Kanter (1968) and 'control theory' as proposed by Locke (1991). Process theories are synonymous with 'goal theories' (Locke, 1991), and are concerned with cognitive behaviour, that is, they attempt to explain how certain behaviours are started, sustained at a particular level and then stop. As Vroom (1964) purports; individuals are motivated to work when they succeed in achieving what they anticipate achieving from their jobs. This discussion will now proceed with a consideration of both 'control' and 'process' theories in more detail, as both are relevant to the research being carried out here.

Content Theories

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1936) is probably the best known of content theories. He believed that all individuals have five sets of needs that can be arranged in a hierarchy (see Diagram 3.1). But how might this theory, dated prior to the 1988 Education Act, relate to teachers in schools at the beginning of the 21st Century? Psychological Needs and Security Needs, by Maslow's own definition, relate to the necessities of staying alive and keeping safe. In a school context today this might arguably relate to salary determination, health and safety risk assessments and security management. The latter being particularly relevant in relation to the tragedy in a school in Dunblane in 1998 and other similar headline stories.

Social Needs refer to our need to belong, an important reason for staff in schools to work together as a team, and an essential feature of effective schools (Mortimer, 1995). Esteem and Self Actualisation Needs refer

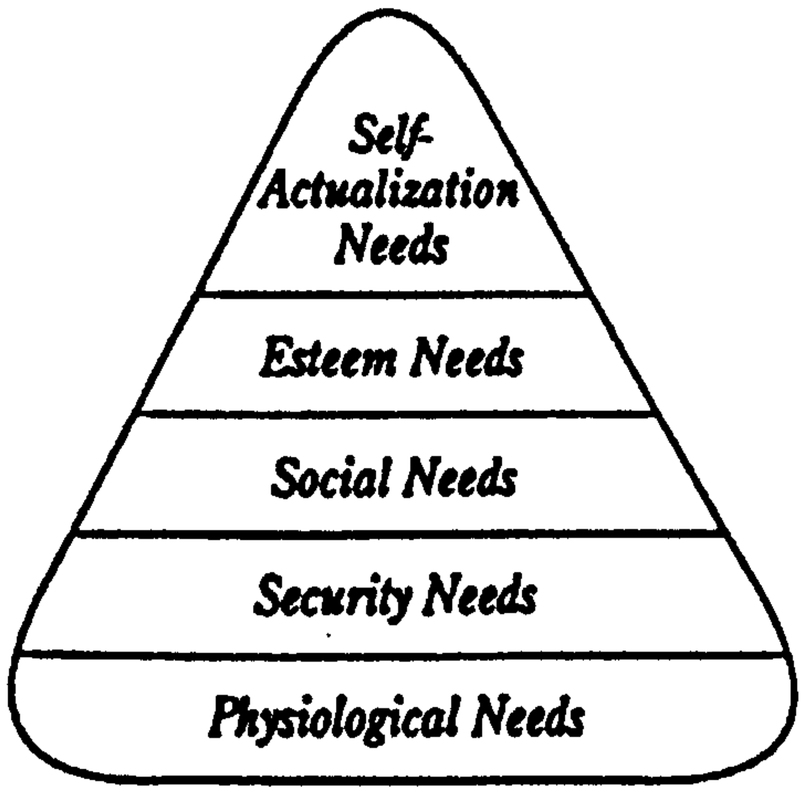


Diagram 2.1

firstly, to our need to receive praise and recognition from others and secondly, to our personal need to make the most of our potential. In a school setting this might be observed in staff giving and receiving praise, and through Performance Management systems and Staff Development. Whilst it would seem that one can readily identify real examples in each category of need in schools today, and despite the fact that Maslow (1943) would

claim that his theory has universal application, a review of literature reveals that this theory has not been without its critics. Bellott & Tutor (1990) claimed that the places in the hierarchy of Self-Actualisation Needs and Esteem Needs should be reversed, arguing that some teachers have reached their potential, and have become the best that they are to become. This claim arises from a doctoral study by Tutor (1986) that focussed on the needs of a sample of Tennessee teachers in relation to their participation in the state career system. The differences between teachers of different ages, and with variations in length of service are ethnographic characteristics that Tutor's (1986) study attempted to explore, similar to the study undertaken here, but Tutor's (1986) sample included teachers from both elementary and high schools, that is, both the primary and secondary sector. Does Bellott & Tutor's (1990) criticism, however, misinterpret the notion of Self-Actualisation? Surely this is about a teacher's own personal satisfaction with his/her own performance rather than the achievement of individual potential? In support of Maslow (1936), the author of the present research has personal experience of working with teachers who are well regarded, but are personally dissatisfied with their own performance, and others that are well respected in their current school but wish to apply their skills in different contexts and with different groups of children purely for their own personal satisfaction. In both of these examples, Esteem Needs are being met, but Self-Actualisation Needs are not, thereby confirming the hierarchy as determined by Maslow (1986). This discussion may not yield a defensible conclusion concerning the relative position of Esteem Needs and Self-Actualisation Needs in the hierarchy, but it does illustrate the importance of a shared understanding of definitions.

The actual number of wants or needs that an individual experiences is another issue that has been widely debated in our drive to understand motivation and, as Wicker *et al* (1984) noted, the answer is notoriously difficult to determine. The number implied by motivation theorists varies widely from Murray (1938) who described more than forty one, Maslow (1936) who identified five kinds of need and Freud (1920) who suggested just two categories: life instincts and death instincts. The list appears to vary according to how general or specific one wishes to be. Maslow (1936)

suggested a hierarchy of need whereas Murray (1938) suggested a theory of subsidiation, that is, one goal being a sub goal of another. In terms of a primary school teacher at the beginning of the 21st Century, an example might be, the teacher who wishes to learn about the effective use of an integrated whiteboard, in order to raise standards, thereby helping the children to achieve their National Curriculum targets, which in turn will help him or her to achieve the next point on the Upper Pay Spine. Each goal is therefore a subsidiary of another. This is obviously very simplistic and one such strand is only part of a much more complicated web. Human goals are generally much more interdependent, a view that is supported by Wicker *et al* (1984) who come to this conclusion having conducted two studies of motivation, a year apart, involving over one hundred psychology students on each occasion.

Alderfer (1972), as cited in Smith (1995), proposed a theory incorporating a hierarchy of needs similar to Maslow (1936) but developed the theory further by introducing the concept of needs frustration. Alderfer (1972) claims that his research shows that we regress to lower levels of need, when experiencing frustration at higher levels. This might be exemplified by, a deputy head with management problems seeking the support and friendship of less senior colleagues. Alderfer's (1972) theory has the advantage therefore, that it attempts to introduce the notion of individuality into the theory of motivation, a characteristic that is generally lacking within Content theories.

As has been mentioned above, a description of motivation in terms of a hierarchy is not the only perspective. A major alternative perspective is given by Herzberg's theory (1959), which distinguishes two groups of factors:

- motivators - the presence of which produce job satisfaction and include opportunities for recognition and development

- hygiene factors - the absence of which causes dissatisfaction, and include such things as remuneration, working relationships and conditions.

His initial theory was based on an empirical study of engineers and accountants, rather than in an educational setting but, as shall be seen later, it would also appear to be relevant in schools (Sergiovanni, 1968, Holdaway, 1978, Nias, 1981). The relative weighting of the two groups of factors is not given, but work carried out by Wernimont (1966), who conducted a study to test Herzberg's (1959) findings with a further sample of fifty accountants and eighty two engineers, provides some insight. Both groups of workers endorsed more intrinsic than extrinsic items when given a selection of descriptions characterising a variety of satisfying and dissatisfying job situations. Similarly Bellott & Tutor (1990) suggest that teachers are three times as likely to be influenced by motivators than hygiene factors: the latter being synonymous with extrinsic motivators in this instance. If this is true, one might ask, why is staff motivation such a challenge? – and if, as the media in the 21st Century would lead us to believe, that teachers generally are demoralised, then the situation is even worse than it appears. It will be interesting to see whether in the study being reported here, intrinsic motivators outweigh those that are extrinsic and, if so whether the weighting is three to one as Bellott and Tutor (1990) suggest.

Kaufman (1984) took Herzberg's (1959) 'two factor' theory a stage further and explored its potential to actually identify groups of teachers as motivation seekers and hygiene seekers. A questionnaire was distributed to one hundred and ninety eight elementary and secondary school teachers, with an eighty three percent response rate. She concluded, as Herzberg had maintained, that some individuals are more concerned with one set of factors than the other, and that this could be used in education to distinguish between teachers in the two groups. Furthermore, based on the criteria used for the study, motivation seekers are judged as more committed to teaching, than hygiene seekers. Kaufman (1984) claimed that only those teachers orientated towards motivators contribute to high performance or commitment. If this is true, as Kaufman (1984) suggests, then there are implications for headteachers, in the 21st Century, keen to maximise school

effectiveness. For example, attempts could be made to identify and meet these needs, as they exist within individuals, by matching types of teachers with appropriate activities and assignments. Despite this however, it may not result in a whole team of committed workers. As within an organisation, there may be individuals without these needs, and those who are incapable of high performance and commitment. Perhaps it could be argued that the implications for headteachers and other employers are even wider. Should steps be taken at the recruitment stage to identify individual motivational needs, as a means of ensuring a high level of performance and commitment from all involved, from the outset?

Herzberg (1966) went on to develop his theory further, and at a later date concluded that the causes of satisfaction seemed to be largely independent of those that cause dissatisfaction, but even this has been open to criticism. Burke (1966) claimed this to be an oversimplified representation of job satisfaction. He conducted research involving one hundred and eighty seven college students, who were asked to rank ten job characteristics in order of importance: five motivators and five hygienes. His findings suggest, as do those of Wernimont (1966), that they are not uni-dimensional or independent constructs, and in some cases a given factor was found to cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in the same sample. Burke (1966) proceeds by quoting fourteen other pieces of research to support his conclusions, conducted in a variety of settings.

Dinham & Scott (1998) set up a study to test the 'two factor' theory of career satisfaction, and argued that they had identified a third domain of factors, falling between the intrinsic rewards and extrinsic dissatisfiers. These are school-based factors such as leadership, climate and decision-making, school reputation and school infrastructure. They argued that, it is these factors that vary between schools and, therefore, are where the greatest potential for change exists. If we apply the definitions outlined above literally, it might be argued that these factors are all external to, or from outside, the individual and are therefore extrinsic. Friedlander (1963) also concluded that there are three dimensions to job satisfaction namely: Social and Technical Environment, Intrinsic Self Actualising Work Aspects and

A comparison of 'Three dimensional models' of job satisfaction

Diagram 2.2

Scott & Dinham (1998)	*Ozcan(1996)*	*Lortie(1975)*	*Friedlander(1963)*
Intrinsic	Intrinsic	Intrinsic	Intrinsic Self Actualising Work Aspects
Extrinsic	Extrinsic	Extrinsic	Recognition through Advancement
School based factors	Means	Ancillary rewards	Social and Technical Environment

Recognition through Advancement. This study was not based in schools but involved the distribution of a questionnaire to ten thousand employees of a large mid-western USA manufacturing company. An impressive ninety two *per cent* response rate was recorded. Lortie (1975) also classified rewards into three types; extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards and ancillary rewards. The latter refers to the objective characteristics of the work, and these tend to be stable through time. Lortie (1975) claims this category contains characteristics that are often 'taken for granted', for example, people expect teaching to be cleaner work than emptying dustbins. Ancillary rewards tend to affect entry into a given line of work, rather than the effort of the postholders. The case for three dimensions is further supported by Ozcan (1996), who conducted a review of existing research, and identified three types of motivation; 'intrinsic', 'extrinsic' and 'means'. The latter is not an end in itself, but refers to the characteristics of the school which facilitate the fulfillment of other needs, for example, class size, school facilities and resources, teacher time and the nature of the students and their parents.

The names given to the three dimensions may be different, but it might be argued that Friedlander (1963), Lortie (1975) Ozcan (1996) and Dinham & Scott (1998) actually reached the same conclusions in completely different contexts and at different times (see Diagram 2.2). Although smaller in scale, it will be interesting to see whether a third dimension emerged from the study being reported here.

There is relatively little empirical evidence to support Maslow's theory, and while there are many studies bearing on Herzberg's (1959) theory it remains controversial (Hunt & Hill 1969). Despite this, and the fact that both theories were evolved prior to the 1988 Education Act, they are still relevant today, and it is not unusual for contemporary researchers and theorists to make reference to them, for example, Tin Low & Marican (1992), Hayden (1993), Horner (1997) and Fleming (1999).

Content theory assumes that human beings are like machines and that most

human actions are based on conscious goals. Locke (1991) claims that control theory, synonymous with content theory, centres on discrepancy reduction, although human beings do not automatically remove discrepancies between output and goals when receiving feedback. Carver and Scheier (1990) argued that when the discrepancy reduction is greater than a standard rate, satisfaction is felt, and vice versa in relation to dissatisfaction. Campion & Lord (1982) claimed that one of the strengths of content theory is in providing an explanation for goal change, that is, if discrepancy reduction is the aim, then the discrepancy can be reduced by not only modifying the input, but also the ultimate goal. A practical example might be found in target setting: a teacher in the 21st Century aiming for all children in a Year 6 class to achieve Level 4 in the Key Stage 2 National Curriculum Tests, might need to modify that goal if two of the children have significant Special Educational Needs. As we have seen various modifications and justifications have been attempted over the years to try and make content theory more meaningful, and despite having differences, these variations have obvious common ground. Hellriegel *et al* (1992) suggest that given adequate remuneration, job security and working conditions, motivation and job satisfaction can be promoted by addressing three sets of need: affiliation; power and achievement, that is, being part of a team; involvement in the decision making process; recognition and opportunity for personal development. Content theory would therefore seem a useful starting point for headteachers in motivating staff at this time in history. It generally neglects, however, the personal factors that influence individual behaviour and to understand these we need to consider process theory.

Process Theory

Possibly one of the best known examples of process theory is Vroom's (1964) expectancy model, which claims that individuals will expend effort performing, in order to secure incentives and avoid negative incentives, that is, an individual believes that a particular action or effort will be followed by a certain outcome. Conversely a target or incentive, however desirable, that is perceived to be beyond reach because of the effort necessary to

achieve it, would fail to be motivational. An example of a target that might be perceived beyond reach, would be if Year 6 teachers were told that an honorarium of two thousand pounds is to be paid if all of their children achieve Level 5 in the National Curriculum end of Key Stage 2 Mathematics tests. Constantly, however, schools are told that effective schools have high expectations (Mortimer, 1995). This view is supported by Locke (1968) who claims that hard goals, assumed to be synonymous with Mortimer's (1995) high expectations, produce a higher level of performance than easy goals, and that specific 'hard' goals produce a higher level of output than a goal of 'do your best'. Clearly if motivation and performance are to be maximised it is important to get this right.

Equity theory (Adams, 1965) would suggest that the above is far too simplistic, that is, claiming that the amount of energy expended to achieve a goal depends on how fairly individuals feel they are being treated. For example, it wouldn't be fair to award an honorarium to Year 6 teachers only, for meeting targets in the Key Stage 2 National Curriculum Tests. Tensions will result if teachers have a perception they are unfairly treated, as this will result conversely in demotivation, whether or not it happens to be true. Adams (1965) suggested that an individual would moderate their work input if the outcomes that they receive, are less than the outcomes received by others making similar inputs. Adams (1965) cites some empirical evidence to support this theory, although not from the sphere of education, and acknowledges that more research on this issue is necessary. Managing individual perceptions of the relative worth of inputs and outcomes is difficult, as these will vary with individual life experiences and expectations.

It is of course important to remember, that incentives are not just financial. They include other rewards, referred to in the discussion on content theory: extrinsic motivators such as praise, opportunities for training, development and promotion (Cushway, 1994). Although Locke (1968) claims, that the evidence he presents, indicates that monetary incentives, time limits and knowledge of results, do not affect performance level independently of an individual's own goals or intentions, and that the same view is maintained with respect to participation, competition, praise and reproach.

Mitchell & Peters (1988) make a distinction between the potency of a reward and the incentive value of a reward. Potency being the amount of satisfaction it generates, whereas the incentive value is the extent to which teachers are motivated to reshape their work efforts to obtain it. Ensuring that the incentive and the potency of a reward are desirable and equitable is, therefore, an important task for the management of the school, along with making sure that expectations are optimally high and attainable.

This literature review began with a consideration of some useful definitions and has reviewed in some detail two main theories of motivation, namely content and process theory. As is evident; the line between the two theories is indistinct and undoubtedly these theories will continue to evolve. Process theory takes account of individual motivational thresholds whereas content theory does not. Individual innate motivational traits are a significant consideration in relation to motivation and are therefore, the main focus of the next section in this continuing discussion of motivational theory.

Innate motivational tendencies

Goleman (1996) identifies optimism as a characteristic that varies between individuals, and as being particularly important in relation to motivation. He refers to it as the 'Master Aptitude'. Bandura (1989), Collins (1982) and Weinberg *et al* (1979), also identified the importance of this trait but referred to it as 'self efficacy'. Similarly, Rotter (1996) proposed that different people have a different sense of locus of control, that is, an individual's perception varies as to where they feel the control of events is located, either externally or within themselves. People who are optimistic see difficulties as a challenge, something to be managed or changed, whereas pessimists see difficulties as something over which they have no control. Goleman (1996), in contrast to Locke (1968), goes on to claim that although the tendency is 'in-born', it can be tempered by experience and by the context within which an individual is working. Robertson & Smith (1985) take a step further and suggest that not only do individual motivational thresholds vary as a result of hereditary factors but also in

response to age, sex and occupation. The importance of all these factors is considered in relation to primary school teachers in further detail later.

In relation to effectiveness, therefore, the task of managers is to optimise individual levels of innate motivation. The Yerkes-Dodson Law (Hayes & Orrell, 1998) describes the 'Arousal' level of the individual as being the indicator of a person's motivation. If an individual's level of arousal is too low or conversely too high, their performance will be adversely affected. The graph of an individual's performance, against their level of arousal, will show an inverted U shape. So the highest point on the graph, the time when performance is at its maximum is when arousal is fairly, but not very high (Hayes, 1988). The state of arousal, and therefore the level of motivation, is affected by a range of factors; including the difficulty of the task, the environment and the working conditions. This suggests perhaps, that the quality of leadership in 21st Century schools is an important factor in teacher motivation. It will be interesting to see whether leadership surfaces as an issue in the present research.

Theorists using cognitive approaches (Deci, 1980) believe that environment alone cannot fully explain the complex behaviour of individuals. As mentioned previously, this was later confirmed by the findings of Goleman (1996). Novacek & Lazarus (1990) similarly claimed that it is impossible to understand individual differences in emotion unless one takes into account what is important for different people. They identified six components of commitment, namely; Affiliation, Power/Achievement, Personal Growth, Altruism, Stress Avoidance and Sensation seeking. There are obvious similarities between the six components of commitment described by Novacek & Lazarus (1990), Maslow's Hierarchy of Need and Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, the latter of which is described below. Novacek & Lazarus (1990) further observed that five of these components are 'approach' commitments and only one is classified as an 'avoidance' commitment. If the balance of these commitments is 5: 1 in favour of employees being positively motivated, as Novacek & Lazarus (1990) suggest, it might be asked why is the motivation of staff such an issue for

employers? Although six components were identified, however, no indication is given as to their relative strengths, and it is perhaps this that gives people their individuality, and makes staff motivation such a challenge for employers. Novacek & Lazurus (1990) go on to claim that the number of goals to which people can be committed is limitless. Perhaps this is reassuring in the current educational climate! They also claim that the knowledge of these facets of commitment is useful, because it allows commitment to be measured, but Novacek & Lazurus (1990) do not suggest how this can be done. There are, however, a number of motivational psychologists and researchers who have tackled this issue, and who have attempted to suggest ways in which it can be done. The next section explores two of the best known.

Measuring motivation

One of the strengths of Vroom's (1964) expectancy model mentioned earlier, is that it not only emphasizes individual differences in motivation, but it also makes a suggestion of how these can be measured. The model includes definitions of 'valence' and 'instrumentality'. Valence is defined as the strength of an individual's desire for a particular outcome, and instrumentality as an individual's perception of the degree to which one outcome is seen as leading to the accomplishment of a second and successive outcome. Valence can be measured by ranking a given set of goals or outcomes, and instrumentality by using rating scales that involve perceived differences in the direction and strength of relationships. Expectancy differs from instrumentality in that it involves effort or commitment. Vroom (1964) stated that the force on a person to perform an action, that is, motivation, is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the product of the valences and the strength of his expectancies that the action will be followed by the outcome. This is expressed algebraically as:

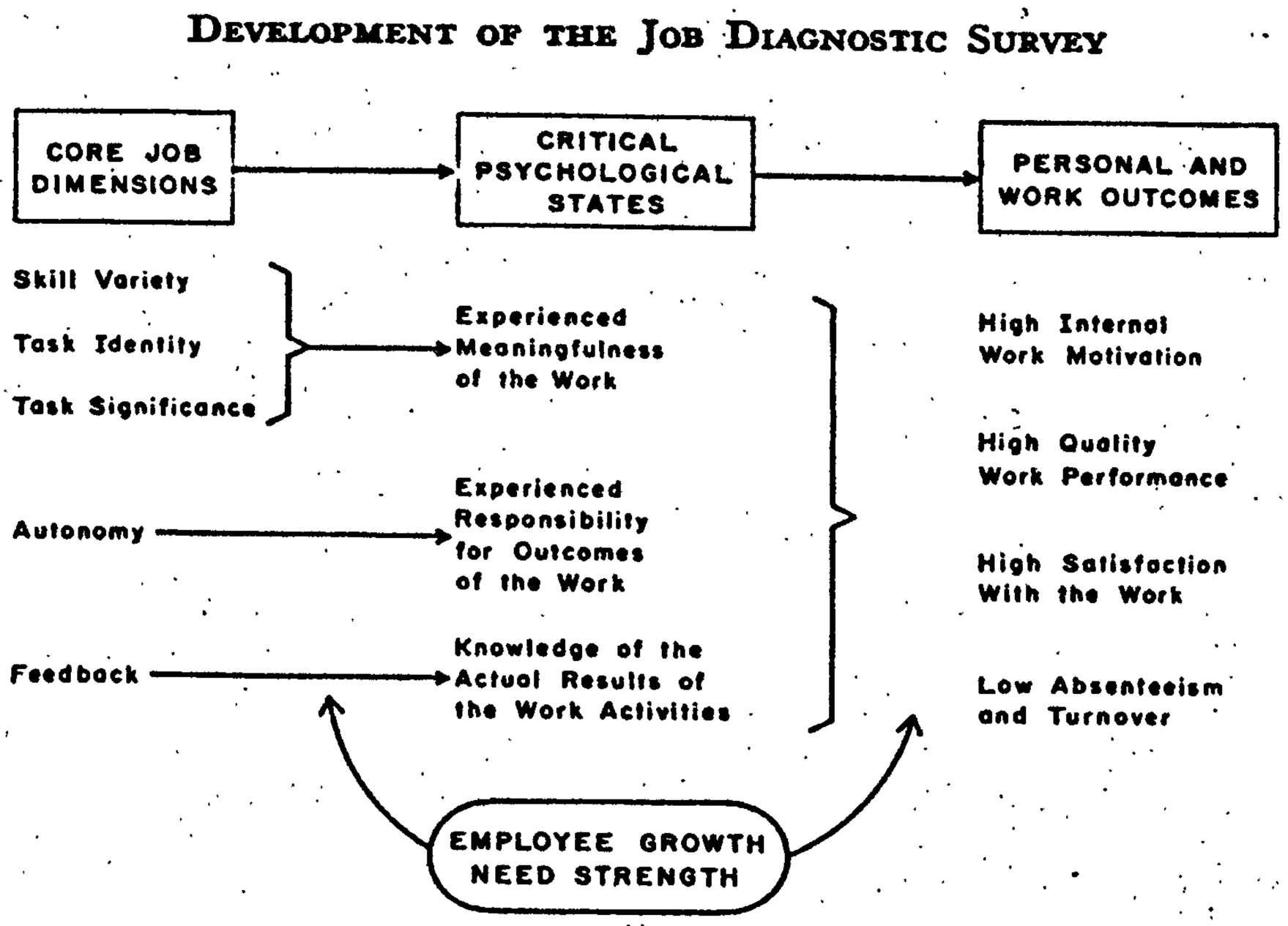
$$\text{Force} = \sum \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}$$

Measuring valence and expectancy on pre-determined scales and then using the data in an algebraic formula is of course open to the criticism of subjectivity. Hunt & Hill (1969) cited four studies conducted to test Vroom's theory empirically, and concluded that this model,

> 'holds great promise for predicting individual behaviour in organisations.' p. 107

None of the studies were, however, conducted in an educational setting and all used predetermined subjective measures. Additionally, as is acknowledged, the studies leave more unanswered questions than they answer. Even if it is possible, for example, we do not have an exhaustive list of all goals that have a positive valence in a work situation, and we do not know how much of a difference in force is necessary, before one outcome is chosen over another. This, as Hunt & Hill (1969) conclude, requires further research.

Another possible instrument for measuring motivation is suggested by Frase & Sorrenson (1992), who recommend Hackman & Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey for the purpose (see Table 2.3). Hackman & Oldham (1975) designed the instrument, following on from work undertaken by Hackman & Lawler (1971) with a sample of telephone company employees. This survey had identified a positive association between an employee's perception of their job characteristics and their affective reactions. The findings of this research were later confirmed by Brief & Aldag (1975) who replicated the study with a sample of employees occupying jobs aimed at rehabilitating inmates.



Neither of these studies was based in education, and as Brief & Aldag (1975) concluded:

> 'there is a need for future constructive replications which continue to sample different types of jobs'. p.186

The Job Diagnostic Survey was designed to be of use both in the diagnosis of jobs prior to their redesign, and in research and evaluation activities assessing existing jobs. It assumes that positive work outcomes are achieved when three 'critical psychological' states are present, namely,

- experienced meaningfulness of work
- experienced responsibility for the meaningfulness of work outcomes

- knowledge of the results of work activities.

These three critical psychological states are created by five core job dimensions; skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.

The response to each of these sections is scored and then fed into a formula to give a Motivational Potential Score (MPS).

$$MPS = [Skill\ Variety + Task\ Identity + Task\ Significance] \times (Autonomy) \times (Feedback)$$

3

As can be seen from the formula an increase in any of the core dimensions will increase the MPS. Conversely if the scores in relation to each of the five core dimensions are low the MPS will be low, and potentially even zero! There are similarities between this equation and that detailed above by Robertson & Smith (1995). Hackman & Oldham (1975) claim that the Job Diagnostic Survey uses many of the scales and items employed previously by researchers, but no specific references are quoted. Hackman & Oldham (1975) also acknowledge that the information provided by respondents is fakeable, and therefore The Job Diagnostic Survey is most effective when it can be administered to a group of people doing a similar job, that is, five or more, and when anonymity can be guaranteed.

One of the main criticisms of the Job Characteristics Model, is that the Job Characteristics have typically been measured through the perceptions of the postholder (Fried & Ferris, 1987), and not through the use of more objective measures. Fried & Ferris (1987) however, attempted a more systematic and comprehensive analysis through a comprehensive review of nearly two hundred relevant studies. They concluded that there is a moderate to good overlap between ratings of job characteristics made by postholders and those made by others, and as Barnabe & Burns (1995) pointed out, it remains the dominant theoretical construct in work design.

The Job Characteristics Model proposes that the job itself should be redesigned to possess all three of the critical psychological states to ensure a

high level of motivation. Evans *et al* (1979) conducted a partial test of the Job Characteristics Model in an automobile plant, and found the job dimensions to be significantly related to all Psychological States identified by Hackman & Oldham (1975), except the job dimension involving working with people. Perhaps this is not surprising, as the test was conducted in an automobile factory. Although the respondents were assembly line supervisors and, therefore it could be argued, should possess skills in managing people. This research might suggest, however, that the Job Characteristics Model would not be useful in the teaching profession; a role that inextricably requires staff to work with other people, that is, pupils, parents and other staff. Barnabe & Burns (1995) later tested the model on two hundred and forty-seven teachers demographically representative of teachers in Quebec. The differences between the education system in Quebec, and that elsewhere, is acknowledged by the authors. Teachers were asked to complete questionnaires in their own time but no indication is given of the response rate. Barnabe & Burns (1994) also acknowledged difficulty with the definitions of occupational groupings, in the absence of detailed descriptions in Hackman & Oldham's (1975) study. The results however provide preliminary support for the model but, as the authors claim, this was an exploratory survey and more investigation is needed.

One of the strengths of Hackman & Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Model is that it acknowledges individual motivational tendencies by including a measure of an individual's 'growth need strength'. In fact they take this a stage further and claim that this can be an important indicator when planning changes, as individuals high in 'growth need' will respond best to change and those with a low score conversely will find it demotivating.

In summary this section of the literature review has considered the main psychological theories of motivation, namely content and process theory. This has been followed by a more detailed discussion of individual responses to motivation, including innate motivational tendencies and how these might be measured. The literature review will now consider each of the four main aspects of the research question in turn, in relation to previous research in these areas, namely: motivational and demotivational issues and the impact of leadership; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; ethnographic

differences and, finally, demographic variations and organisational motivation.

2.4 Factors affecting motivation and demotivation.

Other researchers have attempted, as the researcher has attempted to do here, to identify factors that teachers find motivational and demotivational, although previously there has been much greater emphasis on the latter than the former. Much of this work has been undertaken in other countries around the world, and that which has been undertaken in primary schools in this country, is now out of date following the significant changes arising from the 1988 Education Act. A common element of much of this previous research is the leadership style of the headteacher and consequently, this will be discussed separately at the end of this section.

McClaughlin & Shea (1960) attempted to find out what specific dissatisfactions Californian teachers experienced on a daily basis, whether there are differences between elementary and high school and whether these dissatisfactions caused teachers to leave the profession early. They gathered the information by attending a series of faculty meetings, involving seven hundred and ninety three teachers in seventeen elementary and ten high schools. No indication is given of the response rate, but we are told that anyone who did not attend a faculty meeting was approached individually. Participants were asked to list items that caused dissatisfaction. The present research similarly attempted to gather such information on a daily basis, in a simple diary over the period of a week, thereby getting as close to the source of motivation or demotivation as possible, rather than requiring participants to collect their thoughts retrospectively. McClaughlin & Shea (1960) generally found a lot of common ground in the sources of dissatisfaction identified in elementary and high schools, although high schools tended to be more concerned with teacher-pupil relationships, whilst teachers in elementary schools were more concerned with workload. The latter is not surprising because elementary school teachers traditionally have much less non-contact time, if any at all, and have responsibility for delivering a much wider curriculum than their secondary colleagues. Working conditions, however, seemed to be a common concern, and included issues such as

inadequate equipment, poor salary, poor teacher-administrator relationships, large class sizes, limited opportunities for In-Service Education and Training (INSET) and frequency of classroom interruptions. With the exception of the reference to salary, it is interesting to note the similarity of this latter group of issues, to the third dimension of needs identified by Ozcan (1996). He referred to this category as 'means', that is, the internal characteristics of a school that enable teachers to fulfil both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfiers. McClaughlin & Shea (1960) concluded rather unsurprisingly that a staff retention programme should involve the eradication of as many of these sources of dissatisfaction as possible!

Sederberg & Clark (1990) conducted a study of eighteen of the 'best' elementary and secondary teachers in Minnesota, that is, those identified as 'Teachers of the Year'. The sample was clearly very restricted, but arguably collected data from teachers who were the most highly motivated. The data was collected by a series of extended interviews conducted by the same researcher, but an assistant was employed to analyse the transcriptions to help minimize researcher bias. The research claimed qualitative insights into the factors identified as motivational to these teachers, namely good early role models, good quality training programmes, pupil progress and motivation, organisational systems that include competent supervision and feedback, involvement in decision making and opportunities to take part in large scale projects and training sabbaticals.

More recently Scott *et al* (1999) identified both internal and external factors as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. External factors such as workload associated with constant change, and the continual devaluing and criticism of the educational service by the press, were both found to be demotivating, whilst most satisfaction arose from working with children and seeing them achieve. The latter confirmed the findings of Holdaway (1978) in his study of job satisfaction amongst a cross section of eight hundred and one teachers from all phases, and selected at random in Alberta, USA. Aspects of school leadership, opportunities for decision-making, communication, level of resources and the reputation of the school within

the community, proved to be the more localised factors, identified by Scott *et al* (1999).

Neither of the research studies outlined above attempt to explore demotivation and, as Sergiovanni (1968) and Herzberg (1966) concluded, the sources of motivation and demotivation do not necessarily lie on a conceptual continuum: absent motivators are not always demotivators. One piece of research that began to explore the issue of demotivation was that conducted by Frase & Sorrenson (1992), who distributed questionnaires to seventy-three teachers in the San Diego School District. We are not told, however, the means by which the respondents were selected or, what phase of education within which they worked. The main findings were that teachers are motivated by adequate and regular feedback, autonomy, and professional growth, but it was noted that there are different forms and levels of autonomy, and heads must determine what is right for each teacher. For example, professional development and feedback maybe motivational to some teachers, but it can be a source of stress for others. It was concluded, as discussed previously, that the affect of these motivators varies from individual to individual, a view supported by Hayden (1993) and Evans (1998). Frase & Sorrenson (1992) do not specifically provide us with information about what demotivates staff, but their study concluded that factors contributing to job satisfaction and those contributing to dissatisfaction are different. Satisfiers contribute to satisfaction if present, but not dissatisfaction if absent, and vice versa. A good salary structure, a benefits program, adequate communications system, good interpersonal relations and other conditions associated with the environment, are important in preventing dissatisfaction, but alone they are not potent enough to motivate teachers to self-fulfilment. Real job satisfaction depends on opportunities to experience personal and professional success, to have personally meaningful responsibility and to receive recognition for efforts made. The absence of these factors will not affect dissatisfaction, but job satisfaction depends on their presence, hence confirming the findings of Sergiovanni (1968) and Herzberg (1966).

The present research specifically explored both motivational and demotivational factors as did Nias (1981), who conducted interviews with ninety-three graduates from a one year Post-graduate Certificate in Education course, who trained in the United Kingdom to teach in primary schools. At the time of the study the graduates had taught for between two and nine years. Nias (1981) collected data longitudinally over a period of time. She visited the respondents in their own schools and asked them to keep a diary for one day a week, over the period of a term. This is obviously a much larger scale study than the study being reported here, as the diaries in the present research were completed each day for a single week only. The sample in the latter does, however, include a broader cross-section of teachers, both in experience and in initial teacher qualifications, than the sample used by Nias (1981). She acknowledges the convenience of her own sample, that is, many of the respondents were students on her own courses, that she knew some of them very well, and that this may have affected their responses. Nias (1981) also admits that six of the teachers contacted did not wish to be included in the project, and that she was unable to speak to those who had left teaching and who were possibly the most dissatisfied. In her report Nias (1981) is very open about these shortcomings, thereby providing a good role model for all researchers. Another of the few studies identifying specific sources of dissatisfaction was that conducted by Galloway *et al* (1982). The sample consisted of two hundred and ninety-six teachers from both primary and intermediate schools in North Island, New Zealand. The principal sources of dissatisfaction were found to be the methods used to grade teachers for promotion, the attitude of society towards education and a lack of opportunity for useful in-service training. This contrasts with the principal sources of satisfaction that were found to be intrinsic and confirms once again, the findings of Sergiovanni (1968) and Herzberg (1966), that the absence of motivators are not demotivational, and vice versa.

Nias (1981) also attempted to explore whether Herzberg's (1966) findings could be applied to teachers. She acknowledges that in teaching it is hard to separate intrinsic and extrinsic factors and perhaps some responses that Herzberg (1966) would classify as the latter, for example, administration and communication, she would classify as intrinsic. If this is the case then Herzberg's findings would seem to be equally applicable in an educational

setting, and Herzberg's (1966) theory would stand. The latter clearly demonstrates the importance of clarity with respect to definitions and categorisation for any researcher. Nias' (1981) research found the principal satisfier to be working with children and the principal dissatisfier being, not teaching well, for example, due to behaviour management difficulties, poor communication, or other conditions that make it difficult to teach. The main dissatisfiers, and Nias' (1981) findings included a greater range of answers in this respect, were uncongeniality among colleagues, poor work conditions, lack of prospects and unacceptable levels of stress and fatigue.

Perhaps the reason why some researchers claim to have experienced difficulty classifying factors into two domains (Nias 1981) is because of the actual existence of a 'third domain', as identified by Dinham & Scott (1997). Their research, a study of eight hundred and ninety two teachers from seventy-one schools, suggests the existence of a third category, that is, of 'school based factors'. Fidler (1997) also stressed the importance of the school-level climate and culture, as a means of motivating people by creating conditions under which people want to do what needs to be done. This third category will vary from school to school but Dinham & Scott (1997) defined it as including such factors as school leadership, school reputation, climate, the decision-making processes and the school's infrastructure. They go onto suggest that the reason why teachers find external factors most stressful and a potential source of dissatisfaction and therefore demotivation, is because these are issues that are beyond their control, whereas intrinsic factors and to some degree school based factors identified within this third category, are both, to some extent, subject to a degree of control. It will be interesting to see whether the findings of the present research, confirm the three-category theory. If so, perhaps schools should consider whether they can help to develop a teacher's sense of control over their situation, through INSET relating to time management and the management of multi-priorities, thereby helping to reduce feelings of dissatisfaction and consequent levels of demotivation.

As the present research was being compiled a more wide-ranging survey was published by Mori, on behalf of The Guardian and The General

Teaching Council (GTC) for England (Woodward 2003). This also focused on both teacher motivation and demotivation, but in contrast to the study being reported here, the sample included teachers from all phases of education: both full and part time. Mori's research was much larger in scale with seventy thousand and eleven replies, but the response rate of just over 13 *per cent* might statistically call its outcomes into question. This research concludes that workload is a significant demotivator and that teachers are motivated by working with children. Mori distributed questionnaires to all members of the GTC, and respondents were required to list the three factors that they found most motivating, and the three factors that were felt to be most demotivating. Although respondents were given a list of suggestions, they were also invited to add their own. The extent to which the latter option was exercised might, however, be questioned, particularly in light of the pressures of work currently being experienced by teachers, as evidenced by the survey itself.

Irrespective of when, or in which sector of education the above studies were based, all of the issues cited as either sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction have their roots in the quality of leadership within a school. Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), following a six-year review of research conducted internationally on school effectiveness, identified five key characteristics of good leadership:

- 'strong and purposeful leadership, firm enough to 'broker' external and rapidly occurring change to the staff
- a participative approach
- instructional leadership
- proactive selection and replacement of staff
- personal monitoring of staff performance'.

p.141

Teddlie & Reynolds (2000) noted that the quality of leadership was identified in every study as an issue, where it was included as a response

category. From a methodological perspective this perhaps illustrates the danger of requiring respondents to respond to previously determined categories, a strategy that has been avoided by the author of the present research.

The section above summarises the findings of other research related to teacher motivation and demotivation, and now proceeds by exploring one underlying and recurring aspect, and a key issue in relation to the motivation of teachers, namely, the style and quality of leadership adopted by the headteacher of a school.

2.5 Impact of leadership

The purpose of this section is to offer a brief outline of leadership issues, in order to provide a conceptual basis for the present study. The notion of leadership, however, is complicated, and it is impossible to encompass all the connected issues within this one small section but, as will be seen, the whole focus of the present research is about searching for the connections between leadership and motivation. This section begins with a consideration of possible definitions of leadership, and then outlines the development of thinking on leadership in recent years. This section then explores some recent research investigating the links between leadership and motivation in schools, and finally is followed by a consideration of the implications for school leaders.

A small selection of definitions of leadership is provided below but as Leigh (1988) points out, there are as many different definitions as there are people, who have attempted a definition of the concept.

Graham (1974) defines leadership as being exercised by a person who,

> 'motivates and controls his subordinates to work towards goals which are regarded by the organisation as desirable and possible.' p. 82.

Leadership in schools is defined by Greenfield (1987) as,

> 'actions undertaken with the intention of developing a productive and satisfactory working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children.' p.56.

Whilst more recently, Fidler & Bowles (1991) defined leadership as,

> ' a vision of success for the school and' an ability ' to communicate this vision and refine it in consultation with others in the school' p.271.

and Leithwood *et al* (1999) described leadership as,

> 'the exercise of influence over the beliefs, actions and values of others.' p. 187.

As might be expected, the definitions above generally reflect the trend in thinking that has developed over the years, from leadership being the extent to which an individual has control over others, to a more recent view that leadership is reflected in the ability to inspire or motivate others to work towards common goals.

Over the last century, theory and research about leadership has evolved within many disciplines, for example, in industry, business administration and social psychology, consequently there is a rich literature from which to draw. Mayo (1943) concluded from a study of workers in the aircraft industry that, when managers concentrate on managing relationships rather than production, production actually improved.

Early research focussed on the different styles of leadership, and the type of leadership style that was felt to be the most effective for managing a school, for example, that conducted by Lewin *et al* (1939). In summary, Emerson & Goddard (1993) claimed that essentially there are four basic styles of leadership:

'telling' - gives instructions, makes demands,
'selling' - encourages and convinces staff,
'participating' - negotiates and collaborates with staff, and
'delegating'- staff given responsibility, able to make decision.

In relation to the latter style, Fisher (1978) found that a combination of autonomy and feedback increased motivation. This was subsequently confirmed by Hackman & Oldham (1980), who concluded that these are two characteristics, out of a total of five, that motivate work performance. Deci (1980) also proposed, that intrinsic motivation is increased when an individual is given opportunity to exercise 'free choice', and is provided with feedback on the outcome. Gallmeier (1992), however, who conducted a study of forty graduate students selected at random from Chicago State University, concluded that teachers working under 'democratic' and 'transactional administrations' do not have significantly different motivational levels than those who work under a 'laissez-faire' or 'dictatorial' administration. He concluded, and quotes Stogdill (1974) who found similarly, that in terms of motivation there might not be one best style of leadership.

Empowering teachers was a 'buzz word' in the late 1980s and referred to teachers being given real opportunities to make decisions about the curriculum and its implementation. Potentially there was a conflict in schools between certain styles of leadership and the motivational empowerment of teachers. The leadership style of the headteacher, therefore, was an important issue in the drive to maximize the impact of the whole teaching force, and this early research was soon followed by a contingency theory of leadership, that is, there is not one best style of leadership, but rather the effectiveness of the leader depends upon the ability to use a leadership style most appropriate to the context and situation (Fiedler, 1973, Mintzberg, 1983, Scheerens, 1993). A headteacher, therefore, who employs any one style of leadership to the exclusion of others is likely to have difficulty fulfilling the motivational needs of their staff. Emerson & Goddard (1993) concluded by saying that no one style is

'right' or ' wrong', what is most effective is to use a different style according to the need, but making it clear to staff on each occasion what is happening. Davis & Thomas (1989) take theory on leadership a step further by arguing that problems do not arise in schools where the head and staff work together for school improvement, with leadership being shared according to who has the skills for the job. As Leigh (1988) stated,

> 'Anybody can play leadership role..... during a major change effort, leadership may move around the organisiation and be shared by many different people' p.18.

From the above, it should be no surprise that leadership emerges as a central issue in research focussing on teacher motivation, and it might be argued, therefore, that a study about the motivation of staff in a school is essentially a study about the effectiveness of its leadership. Some recent studies linking both leadership and motivation are summarized below.

Nias (1980) conducted a study involving ninety-three primary school teachers in the United Kingdom and extended the study ten years later, when she conducted a further investigation with fifty of the teachers from the original sample. Questions included the participants' views of teaching as a career and, their own place and potential place within it. Their views were strongly influenced by their present satisfaction with teaching, which in itself, in Nias' view, was strongly influenced by how well they felt the school was led. Essentially their satisfaction depended upon the managerial context in which they worked, a factor that the respondents saw principally as the responsibility of the headteacher. The teachers had clear expectations of their headteachers and were dissatisfied when they were not met, whether by 'passive' leadership, which Nias (1989) defines as fairly low on both consideration and decision-centralisation or, but less frequently, 'bourbon' styles of leadership which Nias (1989) defines as high on decision-centralisation and low on consideration.

A study conducted by Galloway *et al* (1982) observed that teachers tended to be more satisfied with a principal in a small school who had significant teaching responsibility than one, usually in a larger school, who did not. They offer several explanations, including the fact that a teaching principal might be perceived as 'more in tune' with the staff, or perhaps teaching principals, who are usually younger, are less ambitious and therefore more relaxed. Galloway *et al* (1982) do not offer any justification for this statement, but the important conclusion they reach is that the principal, irrespective of the size of the school, has an important influence on their colleagues' job satisfaction.

More recently in England Evans (1998) conducted interviews with nineteen primary school teachers, employed in four different schools. A sub-sample was chosen to complete questionnaires, and participant observation was undertaken in three of their schools, between 1988 and 1992. The combination of methodologies helped to ensure objectivity on the part of the researcher, but no information is provided on the manner in which the sample was chosen or, of the demographic nature of schools or teachers involved. The study indicated that school specific circumstances such as the quality of leadership of the headteacher, insufficient feedback, and efforts not being recognized, had a far greater impact on morale than national issues. The findings of Nias (1980), Galloway *et al* (1982) and Evans (1998) are also supported by research conducted by Sederberg & Clark (1990) and Frase & Sorrenson (1992).

This section now proceeds by considering the implications of the above, on the leaders of schools today, namely; creating the right climate, enabling others and responding to the needs of individual teachers.

The motivation of teachers is not the sole preserve of the headteacher, all teaching staff working as part of a school team have a role, although of course the role of the senior management, and particularly the headteacher, will be key in taking the lead and establishing the climate for staff motivation to flourish. As well as considering different styles of leadership, Horner (1997) goes a step further, suggesting with reference to leadership and motivation that,

> 'leadership is less a specific set of behaviours, than it is creating an environment in which people are motivated to produce and move in the direction of the leader.' p.30

The headteacher sets the stage, acts as a facilitator and thereby motivates and empowers the staff to make leadership decisions of their own. Horner (1997) further suggests that theories such as Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1964) provide a framework for headteachers to develop an environment conducive to motivation, that is, one that enables the satisfiers or motivational needs of staff to be met, and for dissatisfiers or demotivators to be minimized. This theory is supported by the proposals of Scott & Dinham (1998), Ozcan (1996), Lortie (1975) and Friedlander (1963), who all advocate the existence of a third domain of motivational and demotivational factors, termed respectively as 'school based factors', 'means', 'ancillary rewards' and 'social and technical environment'. Whatever term is used, these are all aspects of school life over which the leadership of the school can exert direct influence, and consequently impact on motivation.

Manz & Sims (1991) advocate the notion of 'SuperLeadership', and claim that,

> 'the most appropriate leader is one who can lead others to lead themselves' p.18.

The best leaders, therefore, motivate and create a team of new leaders. By creating the right climate the head of a school can motivate a team of staff to work towards a common goal. Bottery (2004) refers to this as 'distributed leadership', but stresses the need to ensure that leadership is truly shared, and not merely a token concept involving consultation, rather than actual participation in decision-making. Southworth (2004) takes this a stage further and in his recent exploration of leadership in small, medium-sized and large schools, claims that 'distributive leadership' is most likely to be relevant in larger schools. In smaller schools 'personal leadership', in which a head exercises influence directly, and 'shared leadership', in which

a head works in partnership with other senior teachers, are likely to be the order of the day, and in which consultation plays a greater role. The impact of school size is one of the demographic traits that the present research attempts to explore. It is important to remember of course, that not all staff will be, or want to be, leaders. A successful team is made up of motivated individuals with a range of skills and attributes, that is, 'role differentiation' (Argyle, 1989), but all of whom are motivated to work towards the goals of the organisation. The accomplishment of group purpose is achieved not only by effective leaders, but also by innovators, entrepreneurs and thinkers (Gardner, 1990). Essential skills missing from a team can be equally as problematic, as a group of individuals vying for the same role within the group. Establishing the factors that motivate individual staff will give a clear indication of the issues that need to be addressed by the leadership of the school in order achieve such a leadership team. As mentioned previously, any study about motivation is essentially a study about leadership, and that perhaps the title of this study could be more aptly named 'How can the leaders of primary schools, at the beginning of the 21st Century, create the climate to inspire others towards common goals?' This recent shift of emphasis on leadership, as Horner (1997) points out, is a move away from the traditional perspective that focuses on leaders and their traits, to one that is centred on the followers and their behaviours. Horner (1997) argues that this shift in emphasis is essential for a workforce in the 21st century, where creativity and risk taking are increasingly prized. It is important therefore, that the innovative skills of the whole workforce are unleashed, thereby creating a 'learning community' (Bottery, 2004). The notion of team leadership itself, of course, is not entirely new, having been embodied in styles of leadership previously described, for example, in those styles that require the leader to sell their vision and inspire commitment in others (Leigh, 1988, Emerson & Goddard, 1993). It is the growing emphasis on the 'followers' rather than the leader, and the fact that leadership within a group, may rotate according to who has the skills for the job, that is moving thinking on this issue forward. A focus on the 'followers', that is classteachers, is a central trait of the present research, in that it concentrates on their sources of motivation and demotivation.

Creating the right climate and selecting appropriate leadership styles to motivate staff, however, is not the end of the story. The situation is further complicated by the fact that an individual teacher's response will vary at any given time. Leigh (1988) identified the importance of 'follower maturity', that is,

> 'the extent to which an individual is willing and able
> to take responsibility for their own behaviour.' p.22

Just as it was suggested above that teachers respond differently to various motivational and demotivational triggers: individuals also respond differently to varying leadership styles and climates. Situational Leadership (Leigh 1988) requires a leader to assess the maturity of those they want to influence, and adjust their behaviour accordingly. The findings of research conducted by Sadler (1970) with a sample of one thousand, five hundred and eighty-nine volunteers from two companies in the United Kingdom, concluded that the motivational or demotivational impact of any leadership style is determined by the individual preference of the employee concerned. What is right for one may not be right for another. Sadler (1970) acknowledges that the findings are only valid within the type of social climate typified by the two companies, however, perhaps the contradictions arising between the studies conducted by Nias (1989) and Galloway *et al* (1982), and those conducted by Gallmeier (1992) and Stogdill (1974), confirm Sadler's view that the impact of leadership styles relate to individual employee differences. Evans (1998) suggests that this is due to innate differences between teachers, and quotes Hoyle (1975) as citing a continuum, from teachers who are 'extended' at one end, to those who are 'restricted' at the other. Some teachers are concerned with practicalities and operate at an intuitive level, rather than reflecting on, or analysing their own practice: a 'restricted' tendency. Others rationalize how they teach and demonstrate a more intellectual approach to their work, that is, an 'extended' tendency. Evans (1998) also argues that headteachers can also be placed on this continuum, and a headteacher, who has 'extended' tendencies, may be too demanding for a teacher who has 'restricted' tendencies.

This section began with a consideration of possible definitions of leadership, and then outlined the development of thinking on leadership in recent years. Some recent research investigating links between leadership and motivation in schools was then explored, and finally this was followed by a consideration of the implications for the leaders of schools today. There are, in conclusion, three issues that affect the leadership style in any situation, education or otherwise: the characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of the followers and the context (Humphries 1995). What appears to be important is the leader's ability to respond flexibly to their followers' needs and to the situation.

Irrespective of the discussion above, leadership as a specific issue may not emerge as a central issue within the present research because, as Yukl (1975) noted, when teachers are satisfied with the management of the school they do not mention it. Good management alone is not a satisfier, however, poor management is a dissatisfier. Galloway *et al*'s (1982) study mentioned above, involved a questionnaire on which the respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with forty-three items. The leadership style of the principal would possibly not have been mentioned, if it had not been included as a previously determined category for response. It could of course be argued, that leadership may not arise specifically from the findings of the present research, but as everything that happens within a school links in some way to its leadership and management, the issue may arise indirectly. As Teddlie & Reynolds (2000) categorically state:

> 'We do not know of a study that has not shown that leadership is important within effective schools, with that leadership nearly always being provided by the headteacher. Indeed leadership is now synonymous with school effectiveness. 'p141

This view being endorsed by Mortimer (1995) who also stresses the importance of strong leadership.

Clearly leadership is an issue, in relation to motivation, that is worth exploring, although the collection of data on the leadership styles of the headteachers involved in this study, and the contribution of the various groups of teaching staff to the leadership of the school, is beyond the scope of the present study. OFSTED reports, however, have been reviewed and have generated useful unbiased contextual information, but only in relation to the level of effectiveness of leadership and management in the school generally. The conclusion reached by OFSTED also makes no comment about the leadership styles employed, and does not necessarily relate specifically to the headteacher, but also includes other staff and governors.

2.6 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

The second question that the present research endeavours to explore further, is whether or not intrinsic motivators are more effective than extrinsic motivators (Lortie, 1975, Galloway *et al*, 1982, Dilworth, 1991, Hayden, 1993, Scott *et al*, 1999), and whether effective incentive schemes should reflect this principle; encouraging collegiality rather than rewarding individual teachers (Mitchell & Peters, 1988). Ozcan's (1996) review of existing research concluded that there is a tendency to over emphasise the importance of intrinsic motivation, at the expense and detriment of economic rewards. The evidence from the current literature review, however, is not as conclusive as this might suggest.

Bellott & Tutor (1990) stressed the importance of remuneration, quoting a study conducted by Tutor (1986) in which he had asked a sample of Tennessee teachers, 'Is salary important?' The answer was overwhelmingly 'Yes'. It is not clear, however, whether or not the question was actually phrased in this manner, and the reader is not told what 'overwhelmingly' actually means. Possibly the response, and the subsequent conclusion, would have been different, if for example; the respondents had been asked, 'Would you take a new job merely for an enhanced salary?' This confirms the importance of validating the questions to be asked in research.

Azumi & Lerman (1987) found that teachers valued extrinsic and ancillary rewards more than intrinsic rewards, and similarly Clay (1984) reported that when intrinsic rewards become diminished, salary and working conditions

become significant. Staff from the Educational Service District 189 (1988); also suggest that intrinsic motivators will only have impact, if teachers are adequately paid in the first place. They cite a range of research to support this statement, but do not attempt to define what adequately paid actually means! Interestingly however, these views echo Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Azumi & Lerman's (1987) study was conducted with six hundred and forty-one teachers, 73 *per cent* of whom taught in elementary schools. Teachers were asked to rank-order eight categories of activity, including both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, in terms of the degree of satisfaction. These categories were previously determined and one might ask why these particular ones were chosen? It concluded, that there are variations on this issue from school to school, and between genders. If this is true, and the researchers acknowledge the limitations of their own research, that is, it was conducted in only one district and only with teachers who wished to participate, how does any scheme for Performance Related Pay address this, and maintain equality of opportunity?

In 1993 Hayden claimed that in the United Kingdom the focus until then, had been on intrinsic motivators, but arguably with the introduction of the Threshold for Performance Related Pay there has been movement in the opposite direction. As Campbell (1999) pointed out, what the government is trying to do is to give emphasis to external rewards, that is financial incentives and high status as prime sources of motivation, in parallel to systems that operate in the financial services industry, business and law. Campbell (1999) cites this as an attempt to lever the profession out of its traditional, cosy, intrinsic, quasi-religious feminised orientation. But is it what teachers want? Lortie (1975) & Soh (1984) suggest that teachers seek to realise their personal and growth needs rather than their monetary rewards, and Sederberg & Clark's (1990) findings suggest teachers reject reward schemes that provide higher salaries at the expense of others. Only time and further research will tell whether the current emphasis on performance related pay in education is effective, and whether or not it actually destroys the intrinsic motivation of teachers.

Cutler & Waine (1999) produced a paper discussing the merits and otherwise, of Performance Related Pay. One of the key issues that evolved

being; how, and by whom, it should be measured? It seems to be generally agreed that both qualitative and quantitative criteria should be used, but how should these be weighted? Are all governing bodies sufficiently experienced and sufficiently knowledgeable about schools to make the judgements? The argument that schools are funded by public money, and therefore should be accountable, is undeniable. However, as Cutler & Waine (1999) point out, evidence of the effectiveness of Performance Related Pay elsewhere suggests that it is far from stringent, and the consequences of getting it wrong could be extremely detrimental to teacher motivation, or could result in the wrong achievements being rewarded and, conversely, desirable achievements going unrewarded. Dowling & Richardson's (1997) work on National Health Service managers found that only 26 *per cent* regarded Performance Related Pay as motivational, and the research also suggested that these were individuals who appreciated the focus of clear-cut targets. As has already been indicated by this Literature Review, any system of motivation needs to respond to individual needs, and possibly therefore any nationwide system of Performance Related Pay for teachers is prone to failure.

Setting realistic targets (Locke & Latham, 1991) is a recognised way of developing staff, thereby enabling them to fulfil their potential and achieve recognition. The 1990s saw the introduction of league tables and the publication of test results, along with schools being required to set quantifiable targets for themselves. The 1990s also saw the publication of a range of literature on 'School Effectiveness'. Perhaps the most well known of which is that published by Mortimer (1995), who defines an effective school as one in which students progress further than might be expected from consideration of its intake. He suggested a fairer and, therefore, less demotivational means of measuring school effectiveness than league tables, that is; a system that recognises the 'value added' contribution made by a school, taking full account of the nature of the intake. Mitchell & Peters (1988) claim that effective incentive schemes emerge only when; specific goals are identified, an adequate supply of potent rewards are available and the distribution system reliably links the two. Similarly Locke (1988) also stated that the conscious setting of goals or intentions affects performance,

but only if the targets are understood and accepted by all involved. This view is supported by Tubbs' (1986) meta-analysis of eighty-seven studies of motivation in the workplace. He found that target setting has a positive impact on job satisfaction, as long as the targets are specific and achievable. In situations where they were felt to be too challenging, they were rejected. Is the current educational development of Performance Related Pay, capable of meeting all these stringent but necessary requirements? Only future research will show whether Performance Related Pay in education works or not, and it will be interesting to see whether this is an issue that arises, in any form, within the present research.

2.7 Ethnographic Variations

The third question being raised by the present research is whether or not motivational thresholds are subject to ethnographic variations. As Goodson (1991) noted: the consistency between teachers talking about their own lives, and their policy and practice in the classroom is striking. He was convinced that the study of teachers' lives was central to the study of the curriculum and school; life experiences and background being key ingredients of the people that we are. As shall be seen however, research in this area is not as conclusive.

Research conducted by Maehr & Braeskamp (1986), involving seventy-five educational professionals in New Jersey, found that there were no motivational differences between the genders, but there were variations related to race and religion. Unfortunately, in relation to the present research, counsellors and school nurses were included in the sample along with teachers. We are also told that there was a 24 *per cent* response rate to the questionnaires distributed. What influence would the non-respondents, who were presumably insufficiently motivated to respond, have had on the findings? No gender difference was noted by Chapman & Hutcheson (1983) and Kaufman (1984), but these studies included both elementary and high school teachers and consequently, their relevance to the present research

must be treated with caution. Gender differences in motivation were, however, identified by Rudd & Wiseman (1962) in a study, involving five hundred and ninety teachers from the output of eleven colleges in 1955, and confirmed by Dilworth (1991) from a survey of existing research in education. Tin Low & Marican (1992), Scott and Dinham (1998), Sergiovanni (1968), Lortie (1975) and Shreeve *et al* (1986) also found differences in gender; with men being generally less satisfied with the profession than women, although the difference reported by Shreeve (1986) may only be regarded as marginal. Slightly more men expressed dissatisfaction than women, that is 23 *per cent* and 15 *per cent* respectively

The difference in race identified by Maehr & Braeskamp (1986) was confirmed by Dilworth (1991) and McClelland (1996), however research conducted by Kohn & Schooler (1983), Chapman (1982) and Chapman & *Hutcheson (1983), suggested* to the contrary.

Research on ethnographic variations was also conducted by Tin Low & Marican (1992), who distributed a questionnaire based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Need, to ninety primary school teachers from eight schools randomly selected from Singapore's two hundred and twenty schools. The teachers were identified by their principals as being either in the top 20 *per cent* of the most motivated, or in the bottom 20 *per cent* of the least motivated. No such restriction on the 'quality' of the teachers in the sample has been placed on the present research. Tin Low & Marican's (1992) findings suggest that neither gender, educational qualifications, or age affect motivation, and although there were no significant differences between those teachers of varying marital status, married teachers appeared to be better motivated, something which was confirmed by Lortie (1975). For purposes of comparison it is important to note that Lortie's (1975) study sampled both secondary and primary school teachers. Contradictory conclusions were however, made by Galloway *et al* (1982) and Kaufman (1984) who found no correlation between marital status and job satisfaction.

Tin Low & Marican's (1992) study also noted some variation between teachers of differing length of service. The findings of the latter study were confirmed by Dilworth (1991) in her review of existing educational

research, and by Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) in a study of one thousand two hundred and thirteen teachers in seventy-eight elementary schools from a wide variety of socio–economic areas. The latter researchers also found that the commitment of more experienced teachers was dependent upon the support they received with core tasks such as teaching, whereas new teachers' commitment was dependant upon the support they got with boundary issues, such as dealing with children's behaviour and angry parents. The findings of all three of these studies: Tin Low & Marican (1992), Dilworth (1991) and Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) were, however, contradicted by the findings of Kaufman (1984) and Dinham & Scott (1998). The latter conducted a study of two thousand, three hundred and thirty six teachers in New Zealand. Their response rate was 38 *per cent* and the sample included a wide range of educationalists, not just elementary class teachers.

Contrary to Kaufman (1984) and Tin Low & Marican's (1992) findings, Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) concluded that novices and veterans show greatest commitment, but no definitions of novices or veterans are given. Age was also found to be significant in studies conducted by Sergiovanni (1968), Galloway et al (1982) and Shreeve *et al* (1986), all of who found that older teachers expressed a higher level of satisfaction than younger teachers. As Galloway *et al* (1982) pointed out, in a sense this is not surprising as

> ' teachers aged fifty and over are the survivors'!
>
> p.209

The possibility that this is due to external factors, for example, the demands of rearing a young family appears to have been ignored by all of these studies. This is an issue however, that has been explored in the study being reported here, particularly as Shreeve (1986) and Jans (1989) found personal factors such as health, home and family to affect job satisfaction.

In the United Kingdom, Scott *et al* (1999) conducted a study of teachers and managers in a randomly selected group of LEAs, using a machine-readable

self-report questionnaire. No indication was given, as to whether the staff were from the primary or secondary sector. The instrument included demographic items, orientation to teaching, satisfaction with teaching and seventy-five other aspects of their work. Respondents were required to respond on a scale of commitment. A total of two thousand, three hundred and eighty four questionnaires were distributed and 26 *per cent* were returned. Again it is necessary to ask, was it only the most motivated who responded? The format of the questionnaires would suggest that the respondents were required to respond to previously determined categories in a previously determined manner. The diary format utilised in the present research, allowed open-ended responses. This research identified the existence, contrary to a study the same researchers had conducted previously in New Zealand (Dinham & Scott, 1998) and to the work of Kaufman (1984), of motivational differences between different promotional groups, that is, managers and class teachers, who appeared to be most satisfied, and middle and lower management who seemed to be least satisfied. No definition, however, of the scale of teachers within each category was given. The central issue seemed to be the extent to which individuals had control over their own work, this being partially confirmed by Argyle (1989) who concluded from his study that the fulfillment of higher level needs is important for senior managers, but less so for their less senior counterparts. It will be interesting to see whether a difference in the motivation of classroom teachers as compared with senior staff is determined in the present research. No explanation for the contradictory findings of the similar research conducted in the two countries by Dinham & Scott (1998 & 1999) is offered. Perhaps there were differences in the composition of the samples, as both studies involved a wide range of educationalists, or it may possibly have arisen from differences in definition. Both pieces of research were conducted in a similar manner, using a machine-readable self-report instrument, but the research conducted by Dinham & Scott (1998) in New Zealand focused upon satisfiers, whereas their research conducted in 1999, in the United Kingdom, focused principally on motivational issues.

The overwhelming conclusion of the research above is that teachers are most highly motivated when their individual needs are fulfilled. There is clearly a wide-ranging difference in opinion on the impact of ethnographic factors, and the variations in motivation as a result of these issues is something that the present research attempts to explore, through a small sample of schools. It is important to note that the focus of the majority of the above studies was to determine whether or not ethnographic differences in motivation exist, whereas the present research not only attempts to confirm whether or not any such differences exist but, where they do, to examine the differences in the motivational and demotivational issues from which they arise.

2.8 Demographic Differences

The final area of the literature review concerns demographic variation. The research in this area is sporadic, possibly, because of the practical problems of reaching a large enough sample. Current recruitment and retention problems of schools in inner cities would seem to indicate that the demographics of schools do impact upon motivation. The literature review would suggest that the real picture is less clear. Studies by Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) and Chapman & Hutcheson (1982) concluded, as confirmed by Dinham & Scott (1998), that the socio-economic status of the school's catchment area has no impact. Similarly research conducted outside the field of education by Brief & Aldag (1975) found that the differences between those from urban and rural backgrounds were noticeable in terms of employees affective reactions to job characteristics, although not significantly so. These findings however contradict other literature: work by Galloway *et al* (1982) and Mitchell & Peters (1988) both determined to the contrary, whilst Teddlie & Reynolds (2000), referring to research conducted by Rowan *et al* (1991), actually concluded, because of organisational design features, that urban schools are more *advantaged* than rural schools in relation to morale and commitment. Unfortunately Teddlie & Reynolds (2000) do not give any details about the nature of these organisational design features and, in relation to the present research, comparison needs to be undertaken with care because Rowan *et*

al's (1991) study was conducted with a sample of high schools, in the United States.

The issue of sampling is also raised by Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) who suggest that the difference between their findings and that of others, is possibly due to the fact the sample schools in their study were predominantly rural, and therefore not sufficiently representative. This raises the issue of definitions, and considerable care needs to be taken with definitions when comparing the findings of studies. What is Rosenholtz & Simpson's (1990) definition of 'rural'? Brief & Aldag (1975) categorised their sample according to where the employees grew up, whereas the present research explores differences between staff *working* in rural and urban locations.

There is another field of thought, suggesting that whether a school is rural or urban, may actually not be the important factor in relation to motivation. The crucial factor may be the way that the school is perceived within the local community, Chapman (1983) claimed that in schools subject to considerable criticism by the media, the social status of their teachers is seriously diminished. As Mortimer (1998) recommended in his study of effective schools, the government should stop blaming schools with disadvantaged pupils for not achieving, because as Mitchell & Peters (1988) concluded: good schools are the best incentive to good teachers.

It is of course not only the context outside of the school that impacts on motivation but also the organisation within. The organisation of a school being defined here as, 'the way in which a school is internally structured and managed'. Theories proposed by Maslow and Herzberg have been discussed in considerable detail above, and although they are now quite dated they are, as we have seen, considered quite relevant today. One of the criticisms of these models, however, is that neither allows for the impact of organisational objectives. As Hunt & Hill (1969) observed neither of these theories can, therefore, be deemed to be of use in industrial organisations, or in schools as they exist today with the current requirement to set and publish whole school targets, for example, in relation to National Curriculum Test

results. Any work activity has to be organised so that people can achieve the goals of the organisation and, as Conley *et al* (1989) suggests from a review of forty-two elementary schools and forty-five secondary schools, there are a number of crucial organisational factors. They reported higher levels of staff dissatisfaction where the following were found to be true:

- high level of routine tasks
- unclear promotion process
- class sizes are perceived to be unmanageable
- high levels of student learning and behavior problems
- low level of positive supervisory behaviour and a high level of negative supervisory behaviour
- a high level of role ambiguity

There is clearly a potential overlap here with the previous discussion about leadership, but the management and organisation of a school, although allied to leadership, is worthy of separate consideration (OFSTED Framework, 2003).

The final issue raised by Conley *et al* (1989): role ambiguity, had been previously identified by Wernimont (1966) who concluded that an employee's understanding and expectations of their 'work contract', has a strong influence on an individual's job of satisfaction. Wernimont's (1966) study was not undertaken in an educational setting, but perhaps this issue, is or has been, the source of many problems in the teaching profession. For many years a teacher's role has been never-ending, and even today when job descriptions are a requirement in all schools, the Teacher's Pay and Conditions Document (2004) is still somewhat ambiguous, specifying one thousand, two hundred and sixty five hours a year, plus whatever other time is necessary, to enable a teacher to discharge their professional duties.

Perhaps therefore, there is still insufficient clarity about the exact nature and extent of a teacher's role. Otto (1986) conducted a study into teacher stress and offers some possible solutions but clarification of role is not one of them. Her recommendations include some changes in personal habits, but the majority of her advice concerns organisational changes. She advises that schools should provide stress education, offer pastoral support for teachers, ensure a ready supply of positive feedback, provide opportunities for shared decision making, ensure a good information flow and provide adequate resources including time, staffing and training. These recommendations, once again, have obvious links with leadership, as discussed above.

Another organisational feature that has been considered in relation to motivation is the 'nature' of a school, that is, whether or not it is, for example, a middle school or an infant school. Rudd & Wiseman (1962) found infant teachers and grammar school teachers to have higher levels of job satisfaction, than their colleagues in other schools. It might be asked of course, whether this outcome was more related to pupil-teacher relationships, or possibly workload, than the overall nature of the organisation? Although arguably both of these: pupil teacher relationships and workload *are* affected by the internal organisation of the school.

Class size has also been cited by several researchers as impacting on motivation, (Conley *et al* 1989, Dilworth 1991, Dinham & Scott 1997, Campbell 1999) but interestingly only one piece of literature reviewed to date, has explored the possible impact of school size on motivation. Kaufman (1984) claimed in her study that that school size has no link with teacher motivation. This is an issue that has been considered in the present research.

In considering demographic influences and in particular organisational factors, the issue of leadership emerges as significant, and many of the issues identified by Otto (1986) and Conley *et al* (1989) have also been defined by others, as characteristics of good leadership or factors that

impact on individual levels of motivation. Logically, however, no matter how good the quality of leadership and however high the innate motivational tendencies of the teachers within the school are deemed to be, if the school is not well organised, neither of the above can be effective. In the way that good leadership and individual motivation do not appear to hold all the answers to motivating teachers, neither it would seem does the way in which a school is organised. As Emerson & Goddard (1993) point out, for staff management to be successful, a sympathetic culture as well as an effective management system is necessary. They refer to this as a 'Quality' Culture and provide the following definition:

> 'puts the client first, strives for continuous improvement, has the commitment of senior staff and is seen as the responsibility of all staff'. p.8

They further claim however that a 'Quality' culture can only flourish if the school has effective leadership and the staff are well motivated. It would seem, therefore, that a 'chicken and egg' situation has emerged! Which comes first - a well-motivated staff or a committed staff striving for continuous improvements? Perhaps the literature on Total Quality Management (TQM) in schools has the answer. The philosophy of TQM is that,

> 'all products and services can, and must be continuously improved'. p.97 Herman & Herman (1993)

The characteristics of this approach emphasise theories advanced by Deming (1986). He stressed the need for organisations to focus on intrinsic rewards, and provided a list of 'fourteen points', including the removal of barriers that rob people of pride of workmanship, to drive out fear and to provide a vigorous programme of self development. Motivated staff are not identified as a prerequisite, but Murgatroyd & Morgan (1993) claim that higher morale, lower staff turnover, reduced levels of stress and job satisfaction are outcomes of TQM, although they provide no data for substantiation purposes. This would seem, however, a reasonable conclusion

in that the characteristics listed above, go along way towards meeting the needs of staff as identified by Maslow (1936) and Herzberg (1959).

This section explores a wide-ranging set of issues associated with the demographics of a school, both internally and externally. Despite the breadth of issues, many of which are interlinked, the range of literature on these topics is sparse. Whatever factor is considered, the impact of leadership is clearly an important fact and the section concludes with a discussion of current thinking on Total Quality Management that recognises the interlinked nature of the issues facing schools in the 21st Century. The study being reported here attempts to explore many of these issues in more detail, by considering a sample of schools with widely varying demographic characteristics, including size, location, and socio-economic context, and how, within each setting, motivation is influenced by the leadership and management of the school.

2.9 Summary of Literature Review

This Literature Review began by exploring some of the better-known theories of Needs Satisfaction, the impact of innate motivational differences, the feasibility of its measurement, and the relevance of these theories to staff in schools today. Although some of these theories are now relatively dated, the analysis very quickly demonstrates the significance, for example, of Maslow's Hierachy of Needs (1943). The two-way classification of motivational and demotivational factors identified by Herzberg (1956), and Bellott & Tutor's (1990) subsequent study of their relative impact which also proves illuminating during the analysis, as does the subsequent three-way classification proposed by Friedlander (1963), Lortie (1975) Ozcan (1996) and Scott & Dinham (1998). The literature review continued with a discussion of the research into motivation and demotivation under five broad headings: research into factors affecting motivation and demotivation; the importance of leadership; the relative impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; the importance of ethnographic influences, and, finally, the influence of demographic factors and organisational motivation. As has been seen, these issues are closely related and all have a valuable contribution to make to the debate about teacher motivation in schools

today. The present research explores many of the issues raised within the literature review, and compares and contrasts its findings with those of previous researchers both in this country, for example Nias (1981) and Evans (1992), and abroad including, amongst others, Dinham & Scott (1998): a study carried out in Illinois, USA, and Galloway *et al* (1982): research that was conducted in New Zealand. The issue of leadership is discussed separately but as has been seen, it consistently emerges as an important thread throughout the review, confirming the findings of Teddlie & Reynolds (2000).

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Section introduction

This section begins with consideration of both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms and the relationship between them, followed by a rationale for the 'mixed methodological' paradigm that has been adopted by the present research. Key generic issues facing all researchers are then explored namely; ontology, axiology, epistemology and ethics, each of these sections beginning with a definition of the concept. This is followed by a more detailed consideration of each research instrument that has been employed, the nature of the sample, steps taken to ensure validity and reliability, and finally, the section concludes with a discussion of the analytical strategies that have been utilised.

3.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Paradigms

Within the context of research a paradigm is a defined by Kuhn (1970) as a body of

> 'organising principles.'
>
> p.10

The Qualitative paradigm is concerned with life as it is lived, things as they happen (The Open University, 1996), and how people make sense of their lives. Qualitative researchers tend to be relativist in their approach, that is, they are

> 'less confident in the existence of social facts. Their view of the world has developed cumulatively, contributed to by life experience. They postulate that the world may look different to other people, and in their research they set out to understand more about the view of the world which other people have.'p.21 (Bell *et al*, 1984)

They believe that knowledge is a social construct, arising from the views of different people and dependent upon their particular experiences of life. It is for this reason that use has been made of qualitative principles. The questions in the present research required the researcher to explore reality from the inside, that is, to understand it from the point of view of the respondents. In this case, therefore, the researcher took on the role of learner. The researcher also, wished to approach reality without preconceived ideas and pre-structured models, an approach typical of the qualitative paradigm. The present study has characteristics of the ethnographic style (Bell at. al., 1984) involving an in-depth study of individuals in their natural setting and also has traits of typical Educational Action Research, one of four types embodied in the Enlightenment Approach to Research, that is, carried out by a practitioner in their own setting (The Open University, 1996).

The Quantitative paradigm tends to be positivist in approach and its researchers believe that,

'social facts exist and can be ascertained'

p. 20 (Bell *et al*, 1984)

They believe that knowledge exists and that it is their role to discover it. Quantitative research therefore involves the search for causal relationships, in which one variable is seen as the cause of another, and makes use of standardized research methods to aid in the manipulation of data (The Open University, 1996). The quantitative paradigm makes a significant contribution to this study, in the data analysis and interpretation, although the conclusions generated are more reminiscent of qualitative research: principally involving words rather than numbers. Quantitative principles have also guided the choice of research instruments, for example, the questionnaire that has elements of a survey style of research (Bell *et al*, 1984).

The line between relativism and positivism, and qualitative and quantitative research is of course not distinct. In practice there are multiple overlaps, and the line between the paradigms is blurred (Miles & Huberman, 1994). There is a field of thought that paradigms should not be mixed (Smith & Heshusius, 1986), but as Sarantakos (1998) claims, the two paradigms are, in fact, two extreme positions on the same continuum. The next section explains the rationale for this approach to the present research.

3.3 Rationale for 'mixed-methodological paradigm'

Salomon (1991) argues for an integrated or blended approach of the two fields of thought, as

> 'there is a 'legitimate complementarity of paradigms'.
>
> p.10

More recently Desforges (2000) stated that within social science:

> 'given the multi-layered, multi-faceted and dynamic nature of the challenges we face, the general wisdom is that we will, as a field, make best progress by cooperating in multi-methods research designed at the strategic level and with subsequent analysis in mind'
>
> p.27

Cresswell (1994) actually suggested a number of ways in which the paradigms can be mixed namely:

- 'dominant-less-dominant' design - in which the researcher presents the study within a single dominant paradigm, with one small component drawn from the alternative paradigm,
- 'two phase design' - in which there are two distinct phases to a study, for example, a qualitative phase, and then a quantitative phase,

- 'mixed-methodology paradigm' - the researcher mixes aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms at all stages of the design.

The design of the present research is essentially a combination of the last two: 'the two phase design' and the 'mixed-methodology paradigm'. For the purposes of data collection the methodology is principally qualitative in nature, allowing the researcher to gather data as close to reality as possible from the experts: the teachers themselves. A methodology that is predominantly qualitative in approach allows this issue to be explored in an investigative manner. Research of this nature, in this field, appears to be limited, particularly in England, and the need to update findings is constantly evolving due to the rapid rate of change in education today. The initial questionnaires completed by all teachers taking part and used to gather valuable statistical background data are, however, more commensurate with the quantitative paradigm. Analytically the study relies upon quantitative methods, with the application of statistical analysis to coded qualitative data. A variety of mathematical strategies was used to extract meaning from the vast amount of data that was amassed. This process was informed by documents that provided contextual information, and anecdotal examples gathered during the interviews and from the questionnaires; the latter being a trait more compatible with the qualitative paradigm.

The present research therefore, uses a mixed methodological approach, being guided by principles from both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms. A combination of research methodology has been chosen enabling the strengths and qualities of a range of research instruments, to be employed according to need (see Appendix 7.1) and ensuring that all contribute directly to the questions being researched (Frey, 1989). The next four sections consider the issues of ontology, axiology, epistemology and ethics: key generic issues for any researcher, and how these issues have guided the selection and utilisation of the instruments themselves.

Ontological considerations

Ontology concerns,

> 'the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated' p. 5 (Cohen *et al*, 2000),

and the researcher's goal is to gain as close an insight as possible.

The most common criticism of any qualitative approach is its subjective nature, which is a further justification for using a mixed methodological approach. This criticism makes the assumption however, that other approaches are themselves scientific. In reality no research can truly be immune to bias, prejudice or human error. Even research that is solely based on quantitative data involves human judgement, for example in the selection of tests, the sample to be studied and the presentation of the data. In fact there are critics who argue 'truth' beyond all reasonable doubt to be unattainable (The Open University, 1996).

Some qualitative researchers believe ontologically the only reality to be that constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation (Sarantakos, 1998). For others, what is important is transparency, and for Smith (1992) objectivity arises from solidarity among colleagues. The present research and its findings have therefore been reported in detail and with clarity, so that readers can make judgements for themselves on the level of 'truthfulness' of the findings, their subsequent usefulness, and their relationship to previous literature on the subject.

Axiological considerations

Axiology is

> ' the formal system of identifying and measuring value. It is the person's structure of value (the road map and

> filtration system a person uses to think, evaluate and make decisions) that results in personality, individual perceptions, and decisions. In common parlance, a person's structure of value is how that person thinks.' (Hartman, 2003)

Axiological considerations necessitate that the researcher admits to his or her own values and biases, as well as the value nature of the information gathered in the field. The researcher in this case, is a female headteacher of a primary school in an outer London Borough and after twenty-three years in education, thirteen years as a headteacher, undoubtedly, already has her own views on what motivates and demotivates staff.

Epistemological considerations

Epistemology concerns how knowledge is acquired and how it can be communicated to other human beings (Cohen *et al*, 2000).

> 'Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies knowledge. It attempts to answer the basic question: what distinguishes true (adequate) knowledge from false (inadequate) knowledge.'
>
> (Heylighen, 2003)

Epistemologically the researcher of the present study has considered carefully the nature of her own relationship with those being researched and how the data collected might be affected. Inevitably researchers interact with those they study, as they try to minimize the distance between themselves and those under study, but also need to gain their trust. Care needs to be taken to ensure that the researcher does not influence the views of the respondents, thereby producing 'false knowledge' (Heylighen, 2003), and it is in this respect that the researcher of this study takes the stance more

typical of the quantitative paradigm, that is, by taking an outside perspective on staff motivation in the six sample schools.

3.4Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations relate to the

> 'participants' rights and welfare, and researchers' obligations'
> p.77 (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996)

All researchers have an obligation to protect the rights, needs, and values of their respondents. Miles & Huberman (1994) quote a range of theories related to ethical issues, but Sieber's (1998) guide is perhaps the most practicable. She asks the researcher to consider whether or not; the research has a benefit to humanity, maintains a respect for its participants and ensures justice, that is, those that bear the risks are the ones that benefit. The researcher in this case has endeavoured to ensure that respondents were clear about; the purpose and worthiness of the research, what was expected of them from the outset, and continued to respect absolutely their rights to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality, as the research was written up and disseminated. Miles & Huberman (1994) point out however, even for the most conscientious researcher, this can be easier to promise than to ensure. Additional care being necessary in small schools where, for example, any reference to an individual could mean that the specific individual is identifiable to the staff within their own school. Miles & Huberman (1994) cite an example of a study where the gender of the participant, and the location of the school were changed to protect the identity of the individual concerned. This of course is only possible when gender and location of the school are not issues under investigation in the report.

Ethically researchers also have a responsibility to ensure that findings are not misrepresented, and consequently care has been taken throughout this project to ensure accuracy in data gathering, data processing and in reporting, with any known distortions, problems, or errors being reported in full.

3.5 Research instruments

As explained above a combination of research methodology has been chosen enabling the strengths and qualities of a range of research instruments, to be employed according to need.

The research instruments chosen for the purpose of the present research were,

- initial questionnaires: a time effective strategy for collecting a range of ethnographic information,
- field diaries to gather the views of class teachers as they fulfil their day-to-day duties,
- individual interviews to probe the outcomes of the above and a further opportunity to gather more general views on motivation and demotivation, and
- documentary analysis: an effective strategy for gathering a range of demographic information.

This section will now continue with a description and rationale for each of the above instruments, in turn.

Research instrument: Initial questionnaire

Initial questionnaires (see Appendices 7.35 and 7.36)) were distributed to all class teachers in each of the six schools, to gather a range of ethnographic information, for example, length of time teaching, qualifications and role in current school, through a series of closed questions. The questions were carefully chosen to provide the information that was needed, but in a format that facilitated analysis. As the literature research revealed, there is some evidence to suggest that factors of this kind impact upon motivation, although much of this research is contradictory. The questionnaires were brief to minimise loss of interest (Cohen *et al*, 2000) and to maximise response. The instructions were clear, and careful thought was given to the readability of the questionnaire. The latter was unlikely to be an issue as the participants are all highly literate, but piloting helped to identify any

ambiguities, where they existed. The questionnaires were not anonymous, in order that non-response could be followed up, and that the information gathered could be cross-referenced to other data that was collected later.

Research instrument: Field Diary

Following the completion of the questionnaires, the teachers were asked to complete field diaries (see Appendices 7.37 and 7.38) each day, for a period of one week. These gathered information on a daily basis, about issues that the teachers felt to be motivating or de-motivating, and significant at the time of the occurrence. Diaries are a useful instrument for collecting data that is unlikely to be remembered accurately over a period of time and therefore needs to be recorded immediately (Nachmias *et al*, 1996, Miles & Huberman, 1994). This enabled the researcher to get as true a reflection of people's feelings as possible, undistorted by memory loss. (Oppenheim, 1994)

Nachmias *et al* (1996) classified diaries into three types: the intimate journal, that is, a continuous record of perceptions and experiences over a long period of time; the memoir, an impersonal and objective record of an individual's affairs, and the log, an impersonal record of events, meetings etc. usually lacking individual interpretations. The diary used for the present research was a form of 'intimate journal' being completed over a short time period, namely a week.

The recording space in the diary was kept deliberately small to encourage responses that were concise and to the point (see Appendix 7.37 and 7.38). It was felt that requiring more detailed records, was likely to be irritating to people who are already extremely busy, and therefore would have been unlikely to be completed thoroughly (The Open University, 1989). The importance of ensuring that the involvement of respondents is not too daunting is illustrated by Dinham & Scott's (1997) survey into satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This survey recorded a response rate of only 38 *per cent*, and one of the other main issues that emerged when they explored the reasons for the poor response was the length of each individual survey: they were each fourteen pages long! In the study being reported here, those

respondents who wished to give a more detailed response were invited to use the space on the back of the diary (see Appendix 7.37).

The diaries were carefully planned to facilitate subsequent analysis, but forcing respondents to respond to prescribed categories was avoided, in order not to make assumptions in advance. Woods (1996) highlighted the importance of 'making the familiar strange' when working in natural settings, that is, not pre-judging the matter.

The issue of whether or not the diaries should be anonymous was carefully considered. If anonymity had been given, it would have prohibited cross-referencing with the data collected by the questionnaires. (Bell *et al*, 1984) In relatively small schools most of the participants would deduce anyway, that identification would be possible from the handwriting, the responses made, and by a process of elimination. Anonymity in this case would therefore have been merely a token gesture. Anonymity was however guaranteed to individual teachers in their own schools, when the initial feedback was provided to the sample schools and their headteachers.

At the beginning and end of each day, before and after making the diary entry, the respondents were asked to make a simple assessment on an ordinal scale, that is, a ranking scale, of their level of motivation.

1 – very motivated
2 - quite motivated
3 - neither particularly motivated or demotivated
4 – quite demotivated
5 – very demotivated

Likert Scales, such as the one being described here, are often criticised for their lack of reproducibility (Oppenheim, 1994), but it is the pattern of the responses, rather than the scores or their total, that was of interest on this occasion. As has been seen, the measurement of motivation is a subject that some theorists have attempted (Vroom, 1964, Frase & Sorrenson, 1992) but it is an extremely difficult one. The danger of translating qualitative judgments into numerical ones is acknowledged, that is, an assumption is

being made that the differences between adjacent pairs are all equal, (Evans, 1984, Nachmias *et al*, 2000). The advantage of this approach however, is felt to outweigh the disadvantages, in that it provides an overview of whether the work experience is broadly motivational or not, and whether factors outside the school might be having an influence.

One of the problems with diaries is the possibility of fluctuation of interest (Oppenheim, 1994). In order to help ensure that respondents were sufficiently motivated to complete the diaries throughout the week, discreet encouragement was provided through regular telephone calls to the school. This also helped to ensure that the diaries were completed regularly, rather than retrospectively at the end of the week. Printing the diaries on coloured paper also helped to ensure that they did not get mislaid on a busy teacher's desk! There was some concern that asking staff to record their feelings in a diary would cause them to modify their behaviour, along with the concern of the typicality of the week selected for sampling. As Nias (1981) pointed out, 'research into motives is notoriously unreliable, for example, people may say what they think you want them to say, although their motives may be unconscious, and they may also have emotions that they find difficult to articulate. It is not clear whether Nias' (1981) views are based on research but it has to be acknowledged that the present research could be open to this criticism. Consequently, follow up questions were included during the interviews: 'was the week recorded in your diary representative of your feelings at this time? If not, how was it different? Why was it different?' The variety of methodology being employed in the present research should also have helped to highlight this issue if it were present.

Research Instrument: Interview

A series of interviews were conducted with a sample of staff in each school, following the completion of the field diaries (see Appendix 7.37) The interviews included contingency questions to probe entries made in the diaries, allowing unfamiliar comments or language to be clarified, and providing an opportunity to explore the incidence of motivation and demotivation in more detail. Delamont & Galton (1986) reminded us of the importance of understanding local language that may be unfamiliar to

outsiders, quoting the example of the 'Horace' joke. A mis-spelling by a child of 'horse' as 'Horace' led to mis-spellers being referred to as 'doing a Horace'. The interviews followed a semi-structured format and were ethnographic in style, that is, interviews conducted with:

> 'ordinary people in the community.... who have knowledge of the issues and situations in which the researcher in interested.' p.251 (Sarantakos, 1998)

Cohen *et al* (2000) stressed the importance of the interviewer being knowledgeable about the subject, but at the same time care needs to be taken to ensure that the interviewee does not feel uncomfortable through lack of knowledge. Neither of these issues was of concern in this case , because both the researcher and the respondents were practitioners within the field of investigation.

The interviews were conducted on an individual basis. They were oral interviews conducted on a face-to-face basis wherever possible. Sarantakos (1998) refers to these as 'personal interviews'. For practical reasons it was necessary to conduct telephone interviews with the staff in the rural school included within the sample. The four teaching staff are all part time and it would not be possible to identify a time when due to contractual teaching commitments, a cross-section of the staff would be available. This is an approach commonly used by researchers working across long distances. Spaulding (1997) conducted a study on the politics of principals and their consequences upon teacher thinking and behaviour, that involved eighty-one teachers in five states and twenty-six cities of the USA. In-depth personal interviews were conducted using a mix of personal and telephone interviews, as necessary.

There are advantages and disadvantages to conducting telephone interviews, as with all methodology. Not too long ago, telephone interviews were unacceptable to the serious researcher because of the possible 'sampling bias' they would introduce, that is, the nature of the sample would be

affected by 'having or not having' a telephone (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). As the majority of people now have telephones, this is no longer the restriction that it was, although arguably there is still a considerable percentage of the population who are ex-directory. Neither of these concerns is applicable on this occasion, as the interviewer telephoned the respondents at a convenient time and with their prior knowledge and consent. This also helped to avoid some of the other main criticisms of this form of methodology, that is, the problem of 'broken off' interviews and of other distractions unseen by the interviewer (Cohen *et al*, 2000), as these problems are more likely to arise when telephone calls are unsolicited. Telephone interviews have the advantage that they are an efficient use of resources: both time and money. Whilst this was not the prime concern for the researcher in this instance, for busy professionals trying to exchange information over a long distance there are undoubtedly benefits. This was the only school that the researcher did not visit in person, and the loss of environmental cues is possible. This may have had an impact on the conclusions, although the use of documentary evidence such as OFSTED reports and school brochures have helped to provide detailed information about the context. The loss of non-verbal cues within the interview itself however was something that the interviewer needed to be mindful of (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996, Cohen *et al*, 2000, Frey, 1989), and the researcher of the present study practiced the approach on a colleague, with suitable prompts, before using it for the project. Methodology handbooks seem divided on whether or not this approach helps respondents to be more or less open. Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1996) and Frey (1989) suggest that respondents find it harder to discuss sensitive topics on the telephone, whereas Cohen *et al* (2000) and, Miller & Cannell (1997) suggest that respondents are prepared to disclose more when interviews are not face-to-face, and therefore reliability is strengthened. It was, however, important to put the interviewee at the ease before starting, because consensus is expressed about the fact telephone interviews are likely to be more difficult between people who have not met, as in this instance. Whether or not telephone interviewing can replace the 'one to one' 'face to face' interview is something that was tested by Klecka & Tuchfarber (1978) and Sudman & Bradburn (1982) who found both the methodologies to yield similar information.

Whether the interviews were conducted face to face or on the telephone, careful thought was given to the time and place of the interview; at the convenience of the respondent, at a time when it was unhurried, in a place where they were unlikely to be disturbed, and in a location where they were most likely to feel at ease.

The interview schedule (see Appendices 7.39 and 7.40) began with brief instructions and details of opening statements including, an introduction to the researcher, why the respondent had been chosen, assurances of confidentiality, the likely length of the interview, an opportunity to ask questions and a brief outline of the research. As Frey (1989) highlighted, the question in relation to the latter, is how much information to give? The answer being as little as possible, in order to avoid biasing answers.

The introduction was followed by a series of key questions, grouped according to topic, following a logical sequence, and linked directly to the purposes of the research (Cohen *et al*, 2000). Nachmias *et al* (2000) stress the importance of reading slowly and suggest two words per second. Any questions that were misunderstood were clarified and repeated. This is obviously not an exact science; the important issue being to ensure that the interview is relaxed and flows naturally. The schedule began with questions that were non-threatening to provide a gentle 'lead in' to put the respondent at ease. Questions that required attitudes and opinions were asked later in the schedule, when the interviewer had had the chance to earn a degree of 'trust', and to build a rapport.

Interview questions are deemed (Cohen *et al*, 2000) to lie on a continuum from closed interviews in which the researcher wishes to compare one set of specific responses with another, at one end of the continuum, to informal conversational interviews at the other end, in which there is a desire to capture the uniqueness of a situation. The nature of the interviews conducted in this research were more representative of the latter, although both direct and non-direct questions were used according to the specifics of the information required (See Research map in Appendix 7.1).

The interview schedule was not followed 'word for word', in order to help the interviewer establish a rapport with the respondent, the interviewer merely endeavoured to make sure that each question was appropriately conveyed and understood. The interviewer tried not to convey her own views or give opinions on what was said, either verbally or non-verbally (Oppenheim, 1994), as it is of course, not just what is said, but also how it is said, that is important. Care was taken to ensure that more emphasis was not placed on some words or phrases than others. The likelihood of variations in this respect was reduced by the fact that the researcher conducted all the interviews herself.

Piloting enabled the potential sensitivity of questions to be checked. Oppenheim (1994) makes the suggestion of giving out show cards so that respondents have a chance to respond with numbers, rather than having to put their thoughts into words. This would have been considered if any questions had proved to be particularly sensitive, but it would have necessitated predetermined responses and this is something that the researcher of the present study, has deliberately tried to avoid.

There was space on the interview schedule, for recording respondents' comments, which were unstandardised, that is, responses were left open with space for reflective notes on the part of the researcher, for example, notes about non-verbal behaviour. Cohen et al. (2000) suggest that a whole range of information can be gathered in this way, including tone of voice, pauses, silences and speed of speech. The practicalities of doing this at the same time as maintaining an acceptable level of eye contact was, however, extremely difficult. The only possible strategy in this respect would have been to use a tape recorder, but this had been ruled out because of the inhibitions it would create, and also in consideration of time issues related to the word–for–word transcription of interviews.

Respondents were not forced to comment in previously determined categories in order to ensure, as far as possible, that true perceptions were obtained (Youngman, 1986). The semi-structured format was more difficult to analyse than an interview requiring specific closed responses, but this approach not only allowed responses and the views behind them to be

explored, but also permitted the interviewee to raise other relevant issues that they felt may have been missed. The semi-structured format was also intended to help eliminate bias. As Bell *et al* (1984) and Sellitz *et al* (1962) commented, it can never be completely eliminated in any interview situation because:

> 'interviewers are human beings not machines' p.22,

and the manner of the interviewer will affect the response of the interviewees, and vice versa. The interviewees were reminded that all responses would be treated in confidence and an informal atmosphere established from the beginning. Shipman (1972) recommends extreme caution in the interpretation of results from interviews conducted by a lone researcher, on the basis that the researcher can get the answer that he or she wants, for example, by showing consent or rejection of responses when collecting the data, or by projecting personal prejudices onto the respondent. The fact that the interview was one of three methods being used for the present research should help minimise bias in this respect, as well as making it more obvious, should it exist. Additionally as Gavron (1966) pointed out, a prior awareness of the problem can help. Other possible interviewing errors included, incorrect recording and evaluation errors, such as, the avoidance of extremely positive or negative responses, the altered expectations of the respondent based on preconceived perceptions, and the loss of objectivity caused by knowing the respondent (Sarantakos, 1998). All interviewees were given a copy of the transcription of their comments for checking, after the interview. This helped to eliminate the possibility of some of these pitfalls, and eliminate errors introduced within the transcription process itself (Miles & Huberman, 1994, Cohen *et al*, 2000).

Document review

Two main types of documentation: OFSTED Reports and School Brochures have been used as sources of contextual information. These have enabled the importance of demographic factors, in relation to motivation and

demotivation, to be considered, and also to provide a context within which the rest of the data can be analysed and interpreted.

Document analysis, has included a review of OFSTED reports from the sample schools, with the purpose of gathering information on factors related to the initial research questions. It is acknowledged that OFSTED reports have to be used with caution, because of staff changes.

School Brochures have also been used as a source of demographic information. These are examples of primary documentation, having been compiled by eyewitnesses of the described context.

Documents are an economical source of data, they can be revisited, and because they have been produced for other purposes, the risk of researcher bias is reduced.

Following a detailed consideration of the methodology that has been used, this section will now conclude with a consideration of the strategies that have been used for data analysis, interpretation and presentation of the findings.

3.6 The sample

A sample is defined as,

> ' the subjects in the investigation'
>
> p.82 (Bell *et al*, 1984).

This research has been conducted with a sample of six schools each with differing characteristics, that is sometimes referred to as 'theoretical sampling' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), as 'naturalistic sampling' (Ball, 1990) or as 'purposive sampling' (de Vaus, 1996, Sarantakos, 1998). In general as Hammersley (1984) points out, it is necessary to aim for:

> 'intentional, systematic and theoretically guided sampling'
>
> p.53.

Commensurate with the initial research questions therefore, the six schools in the sample are as follows:

- A one-form entry primary school with less than 5 *per cent* free school meals.

(chosen to help determine whether the intake of a school impacts on teacher motivation)

- A two class rural primary school

(chosen to help determine the impact of size and rural location of a school on teacher motivation)

- A 1.5 form entry church primary school with mixed age classes

(chosen to help determine whether the organisation of a school and its religious orientation has an impact on teacher motivation)

- A large multicultural urban primary school with over 40 *per cent* free school meals

(chosen to help determine whether the intake and size of a school impact on teacher motivation)

- A three form entry junior school in an Education Action Zone

(to help determine whether Government Initiatives such as Education Action Zones and the Key Stage of a school impact on teacher motivation)

- A three form entry infant school

(to help determine whether the Key Stage of a school impacts on motivation)

The six schools were chosen to be a representative group of schools, but also for accessibility purposes; all of the headteachers were known by, or were 'friends of friends' of, the researcher. Nias (1981) provides a useful example of openness in relation to sampling and the potential for bias, in her study of teacher motivation, involving Post-graduate Certificate in Education students at the start of their career. Her initial study was conducted over a period of two years, and was followed up ten years later by conducting further interviews with fifty of the people involved, that is, mid career. She acknowledges the possibility of bias, because only those she

was able to contact, and were willing to take part, did so on the second occasion. We are told that they were all enthusiastic about taking part. In reality, however, it is not possible to conduct a study of this nature collecting data in this way, unless the individuals themselves are able and willing to take part.

The issue of definitions is another aspect to be considered seriously by researchers as discussed above. Wanous' (1974) study of individual differences and reactions to job characteristics, claimed that although certain job characteristics tend to be more satisfying than others, there are wide individual differences in reactions to them. One of the individual differences explored was the difference between urban and rural workers. Careful reading of the methodology reveals that the sample in Wanous' (1974) study comprised eighty newly hired female telephone operators, and that the definition of urban and rural related to the area in which the respondents grew up, not their area of employment, as first impressions might suggest. This study demonstrates again, the importance of being open about the sample and its limitations, but also the importance of being clear about any definitions that are being used. The following section outlines three definitions that are significant in the present research.

The term 'rural' used to describe one of the six schools in this sample refers to a small, remotely situated, village primary school with two classes and four teachers: three of whom are part time.

The term 'urban' is used to describe a school situated in Outer London in the centre of several large estates.

Families who are entitled to free school meals receive Income Support, or Income-based Jobseekers Allowance. Eligibility for free school meals is an indicator of the socio-economic nature of the catchment area of the school The lower the percentage of free school meals; the more likely the children come from two parent owner occupied homes, perhaps previously referred to as middle class, whereas higher percentages of free school meals are an indicator of deprivation, for example, unemployment and a high incidence of single parent families, asylum seekers and refugees. The percentage of

free school meals is commonly used within the education system as a measure of deprivation.

The definition of terms is an equally important consideration for a researcher when writing the conclusion, in order to ensure clarity and transparency for future readers. For example, Smith (1985) claimed that psychologists had established quite strong relationships between job satisfaction, lateness, absenteeism and turnover, but doesn't define what 'quite strong' means. The researcher of the present study has taken care to avoid such non-specific phrases that are open to misinterpretation.

A classic problem with this kind of research is the 'elsewhere syndrome', that is, the feeling that the important business is happening somewhere other than where the researcher is at the time (Woods, 1996). However a sample is chosen, and however large it is, researchers are likely to experience feelings of this kind, to some degree. What is important therefore, is to acknowledge the limitation of the sample alongside the findings, to enable future readers of the research to make their own judgements on its relevance.

Six schools were chosen for this study, but the process of sampling did not end there. Within each primary school the questionnaires and diaries were circulated to all class teachers for completion: sixty-nine in total. A representative cross section of staff was then selected for interview, for example, deputy headteacher, senior teachers with one and two management allowances, a main grade teacher and a newly qualified teacher. Eighteen teachers were interviewed altogether. The sample of schools and the sample of staff were chosen to provide the broadest possible range of information related to the research questions.

DeVaus (1996) and Woods (1996) claim that in reality, a fully systematic and random sample cannot be achieved because of problems of access, and that these problems are likely to be magnified for a lone researcher gathering data, with time and availability of respondents creating constraints. As previously acknowledged, schools are busy places, and headteachers try to protect their staff from excessive workload. Negotiating

access was an initial concern for the researcher of the present study, but as the project focuses on an issue of current national interest and the researcher had personal links with the headteachers, all six of the schools approached agreed to take part. Negotiating access to individual teachers, however, was less straight forward and, as commented on above, it was necessary to adjust the sample of teachers within the school according to their availability and other commitments, that is, 'availability sampling' (de Vaus, 1996).

The researcher considered carefully, prior to starting the main data collection, the action to be taken on non-response. Should the non-respondents be ignored, and the research be continued with the rest of the sample, on the assumption that the missing responses are similar to those who have responded? It could be argued that this would be a dangerous assumption in motivational research. Is it that the non-respondents were too de-motivated to respond? What were the demotivational issues? Another solution would be to substitute the responses of similar respondents. Substitution could, however, introduce bias and, therefore, be misleading (Frey 1989), for example, when the characteristics of the substitute are not identical in every way, to the characteristics of the non-respondent. One to one work with individual schools helped to keep 'fall out' to a minimum; facilitated by close contact, support for the schools involved and gentle reminders. All prospective respondents were given three prompts to complete the diary, before they were categorised as a non-respondent, and some flexibility was permitted to maximize response, for example, by not stipulating the week in which the diary was to be completed. This had been the original intention, but fifty-nine of the diaries were completed in the given week, and three were completed later, at the respondent's convenience. As de Vaus (1996) acknowledges, there is often a difference between how research should be done and, how it is actually done. None of these strategies were foolproof and where non-response occurred it was acknowledged and then the analysis proceeded as planned (Oppenheim, 1994). In schools where non-response was an issue, a supplementary question was asked at the end of the interviews, that is; why do you think your colleagues have not completed the diary or questionnaire?

Negotiating access

The negotiation of access is an important issue, and underpins the success or otherwise, of a piece of research. Nachmias *et al* (2000) provide some examples of introductory covering letters to be included with questionnaires, but generally this seems to be an area of research methodology that is relatively neglected. The approach adopted by the author of the present research is, therefore, outlined below and resulted in an initial 100 *per cent* success rate although, as Nachmias *et al* (2000) pointed out, research that is conducted with respondents known to the researcher achieves a higher response rate, than that which is not. The researcher knew four out of six, of the headteachers of the schools involved in this study prior to the research being conducted, and made contact with the headteachers of the other two schools via 'friends of friends'.

The researcher compiled a list of known schools that would provide access to information needed, to help answer the initial research questions. A telephone call was made to the headteacher of the schools concerned, asking whether or not they would consider involvement in the project. This confirms the findings of Frey (1989) who concluded that prior notice has been found to increase response. The telephone call was then followed up with more detailed information being sent in the post (see Appendix 7.3). This included a letter outlining the purpose and value of the project, with assurances of confidentiality and anonymity, and a sample copy of the questionnaire and diary, all marked for the headteacher's attention by name. Four out of the six headteachers approached wished to consult with their staff prior to making a commitment. A telephone call was made, approximately a week later, to confirm whether or not the school would be able to take part, and to arrange times and dates, as appropriate.

As a lone researcher it was not possible to collect all the data at the same time and therefore of necessity, the diaries and questionnaires were completed during different weeks at different parts of the school year. The consequent implications of this, and for the findings of this project, are acknowledged, as the timing of the research within any one school is likely to have affected the data collected. (Nachmias *et al*, 2000). The exact timing

of the research was negotiated individually with the schools taking part. The headteachers generally expressed a preference for a 'quieter' time within the school year, for example, not during an inspection or just prior to Christmas, in order to try and manage the workload of their staff. Dinham & Scott (1998) cited 'over work' as one of the factors resulting in the disappointing response rate of 38 *per cent* to their study.

Headteachers and individual staff need to be sufficiently motivated to take part. This of course raises the question: what impact would a school that is unwilling or unable to take part, have on the findings? Care was taken to explain the purpose of the research to the participants, and the issue of additional incentives was carefully considered as a strategy in negotiating access and helping to maximize the response rate before the research was undertaken. As Cohen *et al* (2000) noted, the use of incentives can substantially reduce non-response rates, particularly when accompanying the initial contact. For the purpose of the present research, tins of biscuits and chocolates were provided for the staffroom at the time the diaries and questionnaires were distributed. On an individual staff basis, however, participation in the project was not a prerequisite to enjoying a chocolate or biscuit with the morning cup of coffee! This was felt to be important, particularly in relation to a study focusing on motivation. Staff taking part in interviews, were individually thanked with a small box of chocolates at the end of the interview. They were not told about this reward for participation at the outset, and therefore, as there was no direct link between participation and the token reward, it is anticipated that this gesture is unlikely to have affected the outcome. The important issue from a research perspective is to be open about the strategy used, although as Cohen *et al* (2000) suggest, rewards such as tins of chocolates and biscuits in the staffroom may have maximised response in relation to the completion of the questionnaires and diaries by creating a small degree of obligation.

Non-response is often exacerbated by the fact that staff respond to surveys, and never get any feedback. The researcher of the present study followed good research etiquette and provided interim feedback to all of the six schools taking part. The importance of this is illustrated by Dinham &

Scott's (1997) study, in which they conducted a survey into the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction identified by eight hundred and ninety two teaching staff, in seventy-one schools, They recorded a response rate of only 38 *per cent.* One of the issues that emerged when they explored the reasons for this, was that schools are flooded with requests to take part in surveys and are rarely informed of the results.

3.7 Validity

In order to ensure validity, measures were undertaken to get as close as possible to Eisner's (The Open University, 1996) notions of 'ontological objectivity' and 'procedural objectivity'. The former refers to an account that captures the phenomena under investigation as it truly is, and the latter, meaning the use of methods that eliminate or minimise the scope for subjective bias.

> 'Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures that which it purports to measure.'
>
> p.27 Wragg (1994)

Cresswell (1994) goes a step further and defines two kinds of validity, that is, internal validity and external validity. Firstly, he defines, 'internal validity,' as the accuracy of the information and whether or not it matches reality. To this end, field diaries have been chosen as a key research instrument, providing a means of getting a firsthand and 'on the spot' record of staff feelings. Woods (1996) stresses the importance of unobtrusive measures, so that the researcher disturbs the natural scene as little as possible. With this in mind, the diaries were carefully designed to ensure that they were brief and to the point, thereby not becoming burdensome and a demotivational factor in themselves.

In addition, the supporting range of methodology: questionnaires, interview schedules and document analysis, was piloted with a cross-section of staff in

the researcher's own school and another neighbouring primary school. The pilot sample included ten teachers in total. Piloting enabled the researcher to test the response of the subjects to the methods of data collection, thereby helping to ensure that the instructions, formats and questions were not misleading in any way (Bell *et al*, 1984), and that the language and layout used were appropriate. It also gave the researcher the opportunity to train in the administration of the research instruments and to standardise their implementation. In order to be effective as a pilot, it was the same as the main study in all respects, except in the size of the sample.

In each school, time was taken to explain the purpose of the research and the respective roles of the questionnaire, field diary and interview. The rationale for this was to maximise the level of cooperation and response, without affecting the internal validity by being too prescriptive and thereby influencing the outcomes (The Open University, 1989).

The use of a range of methodology, along with carefully cross-referenced questions, also enabled a degree of 'cross checking' or triangulation to be carried out (see Appendix 7.1). The importance of this is illustrated by Galloway *et al* (1982) in their survey of teacher stress. One of the methods they used, was an inventory that teachers were asked to complete on a regular basis, recording things that made them feel stressed. The inventories sound similar to the diaries that were used in the present study, as they were designed to collect information about 'on the spot' worries. Galloway *et al* (1982) however, expressed concern that the use of such methodology only revealed day-to-day concerns such as broken down photocopiers and wet playtimes, and may have masked more global concerns, for example, the lack of opportunities for gaining promotion. This is a valid point, but one that the researcher of the present study has addressed by conducting follow up interviews, for example, through open-ended questions such as:

'What advice would you give to someone considering teaching as a career now?'

'What are your plans for your career?'

'What do you least like about teaching?'

Triangulation allows for the possibility that different facets of the phenomenon will emerge and, as has already been commented upon, allows for the outcomes of the first instrument to inform the subsequent development of later methodology. Sarantakos (1998) defines this approach as 'communicative validation' that is, the researcher re-entering the field to check his findings by collecting additional data. The follow up interviews, therefore, allowed any surprises to be followed up, and for extreme cases to be investigated. In addition to this, the interviews were transcribed from the notes taken during the interview and returned to the interviewee for confirmation of accuracy, a process referred to by Bell *et al* (1984) as 'respondent validation'.

Denzin (1989) defines two kinds of triangulation, namely 'inter-method triangulation', in which two or more methods of methodological origin are used, and 'intra-method triangulation' which employs two or more techniques of the same method. It is the former that will be used in this case, closed questionnaires being more commensurate with the quantitative paradigm and, field diaries and semi-structured interviews more synonymous with the qualitative paradigm.

Cresswell's (1994) second category of validity is 'external validity'. This is defined as the extent to which any findings can be generalised. Miles & Huberman (1994) stress the importance of the representativeness of the sample and of including contrasting cases, in an attempt to avoid the lack of generalisability; a common criticism of qualitative research. Although attempts have been made to ensure a representative sample, from the perspective of the quantitative paradigm it is acknowledged that the generalisability of this study is limited because of the sample size. It is, however, generally held that the purpose of qualitative research is not to generalise findings, but to make a detailed exploration of individuals within their own setting. It is of course hoped and anticipated, that other professionals working in similar settings will find the research and its outcomes interesting. As part of the reporting procedure for this project, the

findings have been cross-referenced to the findings of other similar previous research, where it exists. Sarantakos (1998) refers to this as, 'cumulative validation': a process by which the findings are confirmed by other previous studies.

3.8 Reliability

In order to ensure reliability, measures were undertaken to get as close as possible to Eisner's (The Open University, 1996) notions of 'ontological objectivity' and 'procedural objectivity'. The former refers to an account that captures the phenomena under investigation as it truly is, and the latter, meaning the use of methods that eliminate or minimise the scope for subjective bias.

> 'Reliability being determined by whether or not another researcher would make similar observations'
>
> p.90 (Easterby-Smith, 1984)

Sarantakos (1998) defines two kinds of reliability, namely, internal reliability and external reliability. The former relates to the consistency of results within the site, and with this in mind the researcher has used low inference descriptors, created a careful audit trail and has asked respondents to check the accuracy of any recording (Drew *et al*, 1996). A number of questions within the interview relate to the same attitude and therefore provide an in-built method of checking reliability (Oppenheim 1994).

External reliability is the extent to which there is consistency and replicability of results across sites. Care has been taken, therefore, to ensure that respondents were clear about the purpose of the data collection and why they have been chosen. In the write-up, clear descriptions of the schools and their contexts have been provided, so that readers can make judgments about similar circumstances. Specific details about the data collection and analysis procedure have also been included, to help readers make up their own minds about the findings.

Following a consideration of some of the key generic issues related to methodology, and a rationale for each of the research instruments employed, that is, questionnaires, field diaries, interviews and a contextual documentary review, this section will conclude with a discussion of the analytical procedures that have been employed.

3.9 Analytical methodology

Miles & Huberman (1994) identified three distinct stages of analysis: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing and verification. Neither stage is distinct, as they all interact alongside and are interwoven with one another. They do serve, however, as a useful basis on which to structure the next part of this section, which is subdivided under the following headings, namely; data reduction, data presentation, data analysis and data interpretation.

Data reduction

As soon as the first set of diaries had been completed, the researcher began highlighting points of interest, contradictions, inconsistencies, themes and contrasts. These preliminary reflections were used to contribute to later thinking, and to inform the subsequent interview questions. This process continued as further data was collected and subsequently as the interviews were transcribed. Categories for the purpose of analysis began to emerge as the data collection was undertaken and these reshaped the collection of future data, that is, 'progressive focusing' (Lacey, 1976), thereby helping to ensure that the data didn't become unmanageable.

As soon as the data collection was complete, the first step was to engage in a process of data reduction and organisation. Nias (1981) in her study of teacher motivation sets herself the arbitrary limit of three to four illustrative comments, for any given point, when attempting to summarise the evidence sifted from one hundred and fifty lengthy interviews, twenty two diaries and several letters. As she commented,

'I have omitted more data than I have included.'

p.9

In order to present the findings in a meaningful way, a researcher is faced with no alternative but to sort and classify the data, especially where data is collected over such a long period and of such a diverse and 'open' nature, but it is also important to be honest about data that has been omitted.

For the purpose of categorization in relation to the age of the respondent, the age of children living at home, length of service, and teaching experience in current school, the recorded age was rounded 'up' or 'down', to the nearest whole year. For example, a child of 2 years and 7 months was categorized as 3 years of age, a teacher with 5½ years of experience was classified in the 6 - 10 years category, and a teacher with 1 year and a term in the current school, being recorded as only one complete year.

In the present research, themes and issues emerged from the data itself, and these were used to inform subsequent classification and categorisation, that is, nominal level measurement (Sarantakos, 1998). A series of codes were devised to help identify themes and reduce the data into the emerging categories. The responses in both the interviews and in the diaries were coded and then categorised. For example, a response to the interview question – 'What advice would you give to someone considering a career in teaching now?' would be coded as follows:

'*Think very carefully. I would ask them why? There is a lot of paperwork, it is very pressurised, but there is a lot of satisfaction when seeing the children make progress.*'

(See Appendices 7.41 – 7.43)

One statement or reply might be coded in a variety of different ways and therefore fit into several categories. The categories emerged from the data collected during the pilot, but were modified further as the analysis for the main study was undertaken. Marshall & Rossman (1989) term the latter, 'reduction and interpretation'. A table showing the categories used is included in Appendix 7.41.

Having assembled the data for each code in one place, it was then analysed, and was recoded and reorganised as necessary, as issues emerged.

During the process of coding and categorisation there was considerable scope for human error. To keep errors to a minimum the researcher of the present study 'double checked' the codes allocated and the subsequent categorisation. Despite this, it was sometimes difficult to code some responses, for example, a diary entry in the Motivational box was detailed simply as 'Swimming' by one respondent, Does this mean that the teacher was looking forward to going swimming after school? – if so, the response would be coded (HH), or does it mean that the teacher is finding the teaching of the swimming curriculum particularly satisfying? The latter would be coded (VV). On this particular occasion the researcher chose the latter. Other specific examples of analytical problems included entries on the questionnaires. For example, does 1 yr 6 months, mean a child of one year and another of 6 months, or is it just one child aged 18 months? The researcher chose the latter. Does a space that was left blank, mean that there are no children living at home or was this a question that was unanswered?

There were also problems reading some of the respondents' handwriting, and some respondents had been given copies by their headteacher of the draft questionnaire and diary sent out as examples of what was required, with the initial contact letter. Additionally despite the fact that confidentiality was assured, some respondents did not put their names on the questionnaires or on the diaries, and as it was not always possible to match handwriting with any certainty. On this basis two sets of data were discarded. Perhaps respondents could have been invited to use fictitious names to provide themselves with additional assurance. All of these issues required the researcher to make a judgment, and this also therefore, provides additional scope for human error.

Microsoft EXCEL has been employed to facilitate analysis of individual staff responses by sorting and filtering the data. This has not only speeded the process up, but has also helped to reduce errors in transcription. It has enabled the data to be revisited and reviewed easily, as the analysis has shown this to be necessary.

Categorisation has been undertaken so that marginal categories have been merged. This helped to maximise the validity of the Chi-squared test that was used later, but it also helped to simplify and make the data more manageable. There is of course the danger that important data may have got lost (Oppenheim, 1994), but the researcher was aware of this, and kept the categories flexible to ensure any data loss was kept to a minimum. Dinham & Scott (1997) used machine-readable self-report questionnaires for their survey, on which most of the items were pre-coded. The use of a machine to read the responses may help to eradicate human error by the researcher when coding, but even optical mark readers are not immune to error, being susceptible to errors made in marks created by the respondents. Computer software, such as SPSS Nudist, would have enabled open-ended responses to be summarised electronically, but even programs such as this, rely upon human input to assist in the initial determination of categories. The scale of the present research did not necessitate the use of such technology and forcing the teachers involved to respond to predetermined categories was something that the author of the present study, has deliberately tried to avoid. This issue, however, was not ignored and piloting, the careful selection and phrasing of questions, and the fact that the interviewer and analyst were the same person, helped to keep the loss of relevant information to a minimum.

Data presentation

Having assembled the data, the next step was to consider how it should be presented. Sarantakos (1998) identified a number of different kinds of matrices, including 'conceptually clustered matrices', that is, ordered according to a central theme, 'effects matrices', ordered according to outcomes and dependant variables, and 'site dynamics matrices' showing processes and outcomes in a given context. Miles & Huberman (1994) took this a stage further and defined a range of ordered matrices, that is, partially ordered, time ordered, role ordered and case ordered matrices.

In determining the characteristics of the matrix to be used the important question was: which will best serve the interests of the research? Matrices require the researcher to focus clearly on the research question, help to

ensure that no relevant information is ignored and that the data is organised coherently.

For the purposes of the present research, the ethnographic characteristics of the teachers involved in the study were firstly displayed in a series of 'conceptually clustered' descriptive matrices (see Appendices 7.4 – 7.14). The data gathered was then presented in a further range of 'conceptually clustered' matrices, to help determine whether, or not, intrinsic factors are more important than extrinsic factors, and subsequently whether the data gathered confirmed the existence of a third set of factors (see Tables 4.5 – 4.8).

A series of 'effects matrices', for example in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, was compiled relative to each ethnographic characteristic being studied. These matrices enabled a range of statistical tests to be applied, and were also carefully examined for possible trends.

The total number of motivational and demotivational responses recorded for each school, relative to the number of staff taking part, was tabulated using a 'site dynamics matrix' (see Table 4.32). This data was then cross referenced with the motivational 'levels' recorded in the diaries at the beginning, and the end of each day, as displayed in Diagrams 4.5 – 4.10. This process provided an indicator of the overall level of motivation within the different types of school. As Evans (1998) concluded; school specific circumstances have a far greater impact on morale than national issues. Similarly the place of the school within the local community was also an issue related to motivation identified by Scott *et al* (1999).

The data within all of the above matrices was ordered as appropriate, in each case, for ease of interpretation, for example, the age banding of the teachers in chronological order starting with the youngest first. Where no order was immediately apparent other criteria were used, for example, with reference to ethnicity, the order commonly used on Department for Education and Skills returns has been employed, and motivational and demotivational factors have been listed as the issues emerged form the data. The order, as determined by the researcher, has then been used consistently

throughout the present research; for example, motivators have consistently been listed before demotivators.

Other issues that needed to be considered in relation to building matrices included, whether or not the matrices were to be descriptive or explanatory, that is, should the data be presented so that we can see what we've got, or are we wanting to generate some explanations about why things happen as they do? Both have been utilised in this report, for example, the former in relation to describing the sample, that is, a tabulation of the percentage response for each school (see Table 4.1) and the latter, for example, in actually determining motivators and demotivators (see Tables 4.2 and 4.3). The issue of matrix construction required the researcher to decide upon the categories of variables, the dimensions of the matrices and the nature of cell entries. As Miles and Huberman (1994) state; there is no correct answer to any of the above questions. The important 'rule of thumb' for matrix building is to keep the matrices flexible, for example, the number of rows and categories. They should be fine grained, but not too fine grained so that the information gets buried in indiscriminate detail. The researcher should be clear about what needs to be entered, and if in doubt should make the entries thicker; the usefulness of any data display being greater when data density is higher. Whatever categories are used the researcher needs to keep an explicit record of the decision rules, remembering always however, that

> 'the conclusions drawn from the matrix can never be better than the quality of data entered'.
>
> p.241 (Miles & Huberman, 1994)

The data summarized in the above matrices has been displayed graphically, where felt to be useful, in frequency diagrams and pie charts, all generated by Microsoft EXCEL.

Data analysis

Having assembled the data into matrices a number of statistical calculations have been made and statistical tests applied.

The mode was calculated as a means of identifying the ethnographic and demographic characteristics that recorded the greatest number of motivational or demotivational responses.

The arithmetic mean was also calculated as a measure of central tendency, and used, for example, to enable the ratings made by respondents of the 'exceptionally' motivational and demotivational incidents to be contrasted (see Table 4.4), and to facilitate a comparison of the number of comments recorded by respondents in the individual schools.

The standard deviation (s) was calculated as a measure of spread, for example, to provide a measure of variation of the motivational and demotivational responses (see Tables 4.2 and 4.3) and in relation to the ethnographic classification categories. The formula used was

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

where:

n is the number of response categories,

x is the number of responses in each given category and,

$\bar{x}$ is the mean number of responses, where $\bar{x} = (\sum x)/n$.

The Chi-squared test was also applied to determine the significance of the findings, that is, whether the number of responses was significant, and consequently, for example, whether or not motivation or demotivation is affected by the ethnographic characteristics of the staff involved, namely, gender, age, ethnic origin, religion, marital status, age of children living at home, initial teaching qualification, role and years of teaching experience.

The Chi-squared test is a recommended test of significance for nominal data cross-tabulated in contingency tables or matrices (Cohen *et al*, 2000, Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). A cross-tabulated contingency table being,

> 'a table that shows the relationship between two or more variables by presenting all combinations of categories of variables' p.588
>
> (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996)

A null hypothesis has been assumed, that is, all factors are equally motivational and equally demotivational. The Chi-squared test enabled the researcher to determine whether or not the observed frequency and the expected frequency were statistically significantly different, and therefore whether or not the null hypothesis could be rejected.

Cohen & Holliday (1996) and Cohen *et al* (2000) warn, however, of the dangers of using the Chi-squared test where expected frequencies in any one category or cell are less than five, and consequently the categories have been simplified as much as possible, a measure which the latter authors recommend. The decision to collapse categories was, of course, undertaken with caution. Everitt (1977) claims that 'the less than five restriction' appears to be arbitrary and a decision based upon tradition, and warns that combining categories should be avoided because,

(1) data maybe lost,

(2) the way that categories are combined affects the inferences drawn,

(3) the whole rationale of the Chi-squared test is based upon the randomness of the sample and the categories into which the observations may fall being chosen in advance. He claims that pooling categories may affect this randomness, with unknown consequences.

As a Chi-squared test has been used, theoretically from a statistical point of view some adjustment should have been necessary, because Chi-squared is a continuous probability distribution, it being used as an approximation to the discrete probabilities of observed frequencies. Everitt (1977) advocates two solutions to the problem: the use of Fisher's exact test or the use of Yates'

correction. Fisher's test would require complicated programming for tables larger than 2 x 2, and comparisons of the two have shown that they give similar *p* values, and equally values that are more conservative, that is, higher than those that would be obtained by the Chi test. (Fisher's test is one tailed whereas Chi-squared is two tailed. The probability is doubled to equate to Chi-squared.) In large samples it has been found that Yates' correction has little impact, and in such cases all three methods generate similar *p* values. The researcher therefore intended to use the Yates corrected Chi-square to avoid the pitfalls of collapsing tables, but the use of the correction was unnecessary, because on no occasion did *v* equal 1: *v* being the degrees of freedom, that is the number of cells in the table less 1.

The Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient is the recommended test (Caswell, 1995, 3rd edn.) for ordinal variables. This test has been employed to determine the existence or otherwise of a statistically significant linear correlation between the roles that teachers hold within their school, and their qualifications, in relation to both motivation and demotivation. To facilitate these calculations numerical values were assigned to each category and the distance between each category has been assumed to be equal.

The formula used is as follows:

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6\sum d^2}{n^3 - n}$$

where:

r_s is Spearman's rank correlation coefficient,

n is the number of response categories and,

d is the rank difference for each pair of values.

Care was needed with interpretation because the rank of roles in school and qualifications is open to debate. Consequently the coefficient for several different rankings has been calculated.

All calculations were generated using Microsoft EXCEL and considered against significance levels as recommended by Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1996) of 0.05 and 0.01. For example, a result that is found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level, is deemed to have less than a 5 *per cent* probability of being due to chance.

Data Interpretation

The aim of the above analysis was to render the data into a usable format, so that it could be interpreted, that is, be compared, contrasted, and to enable any interconnections to be identified. Theories and hypotheses have been proposed based on the data that has been gathered, that is, grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and the 'rules of thumb' identified by Miles & Huberman (1994) used for drawing conclusions from matrix data. First conclusions have been drawn by noting patterns, themes, making contrasts and comparisons, clustering and counting. Careful thought has been given throughout as to whether the conclusions 'ring true' at ground level, that is, the level of plausibility. Conclusions have been backed up with field notes and verified by triangulation whenever possible, and the significance of extreme cases or outliers (Miles & Huberman, 1994) carefully considered. As part of this process, rival explanations have also been reviewed along with the significance of any negative evidence.

The data collected has been used qualitatively to inform the conclusions arising from the above and where possible summarised quantitatively. As Woods (1996) remarked, qualitative research is:

> 'concerned with exploring and describing people's perspectives and developing theory about them' p.166

The findings have been reported in a descriptive narrative form, including quotes, extracts and details from the matrices and, where meaningful, data has been displayed graphically. The findings of this project have also been related to those revealed within the initial Literature Review, alongwith some of the better known theories, for example, a comparison between the relative contributions of the motivational and demotivational factors was made, and whether or not the findings support Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943). Other relevant models, for example, Herzberg's theory (1959), Alderfer (1972), and Vroom (1964) have also been illuminating. Use has been made of both 'theme' and 'discourse' analysis (Wood, 1996). Theme analysis has enabled the researcher to look closely at 'what' is recorded, and 'discourse analysis', has enabled the 'context' to be explored. Both have been relevant to the present research.

3.10 Section conclusion

This section began with a rationale for the mixed methodological paradigm that has been chosen. This was followed by an exploration of the key generic issues facing the researcher and then a more detailed consideration of each research instrument that has been used. The section concluded with a discussion about the analytical strategies that have been employed.

4.0 Discussion of the findings in relation to the research questions, literature review and methodology

4.1 Section introduction

A sample of sixty-nine staff, in a representative sample of six schools, was each given a simple questionnaire to collect a range of background data (see Appendix 7.35). They were then asked to maintain a diary (see Appendix 7.37) on a daily basis, for a week, recording motivational and demotivational issues as the week proceeded, and recording their feelings on a rating scale at the beginning and end of each day. A cross-section of eighteen staff was then selected for a more detailed semi-structured interview (see Appendices 7.39 and 7.40). The data gathered was then coded and categorised in a range of matrices, and mathematical tests of significance and correlation applied to help interpret the findings. To provide a context for interpretation, this section begins with a summary of the response rate, and then a consideration of some of the practical issues associated with the data collection and analysis. This is followed by a discussion that involves a detailed review of the findings, in relation to each of the initial research questions, in the order outlined in the introduction. The main review begins with the sources of motivation and demotivation of teachers and then a consideration of the relative impact of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, including a discussion about the possible usefulness of a third category. This section is followed by an analysis of the relative impact of ethnographic factors. For ease of reference this part of the discussion is further subdivided in relation to each of the ethnographic characteristics explored, namely: gender; age; marital status; the age and number of children at home; the role within the school; teaching qualifications; length of teaching experience and time within current school, and lastly the impact of ethnicity and religion. The final section of the analysis ends with a consideration of demographic factors, such as the size and catchment area of the schools involved.

4.2 Response rate

The overall response rate is summarised below:

Table 4.1

	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
Response	100%	91%	100%	33%	96%	93%	85.5%
Number of Responses	9	10	4	2	24	13	62

Questionnaires and diaries were distributed to a total of sixty-nine staff and sixty-two were completed.

Non-response is a serious consideration in any research, but particularly in research focusing on motivation. Consequently in an attempt to find out why some staff had not responded, a supplementary question was asked, of their colleagues, at the end of the interviews: '*Why do you think that some of your colleagues have not completed their diaries?*'

The responses were as follows:

'I think that they saw it as another piece of paper to be filled in. I am interested in doing this kind of thing for myself. I will be very interested to see what you find out'

'Perhaps they couldn't be bothered, or they just forgot'

'I think they are just busy or it got mislaid'

There are clearly some important issues here, for example, workload, disillusionment and quantity of paperwork. The issue of how to get information from everyone, even those who are insufficiently motivated to take part, was difficult to resolve fully, but it is hoped that this additional

question at the end of interviews, with those staff that did take part, will have helped to make up for non-response.

The reason for the particularly low response rate in School P could also possibly be attributed to the fact that the evidence was collected over a period of a term, and that this was the last school visited in the sample, that is, the second half of the summer term. It is interesting also to see that the 'leadership and management' of this school, as determined by OFSTED is slightly less positive than the other schools in the sample (see Appendix 7.2). Is it possible that there are lower expectations or insufficient organisational strategies in School P to manage the efficient completion of documentation? One of the participants who was interviewed from this school had not completed a questionnaire. When asked about this at interview, she said that she hadn't seen the questionnaire before. The total overall response rate, however, was over 85 *per cent*, and Frey (1989) claims that in general, researchers can feel comfortable with a response rate of anything between 70 and 80 *per cent*.

The data analysis, that ensues, has been undertaken with the sixty-two respondents only, ignoring the proportion of the initial sample that did not respond.

Although sixty-two respondents completed an initial questionnaire, some respondents left individual questions unanswered. The ensuing analysis relative to ethnographic influences was undertaken using only the data from those respondents, providing the requested information. The number in the sample *n*, therefore, varies from 60 - 62 (see Table 4.11).

4.3 Sources of Motivation and Demotivation

The responses made in the diaries and during the interviews are tabulated below. The diary entries and interview comments have been combined for the purpose of analysis, as it is whether or not they reflect motivational or demotivational views, rather than the source that is felt to be important. A total of four hundred and ninety-six motivational remarks and a total of five

hundred and two demotivatonal remarks were identified. All have been categorised in the twelve categories listed below.

Table showing motivational responses categories cross-tabulated with each of the sample schools

Table 4.2

Motivators							
Schools	G	M	O	P	T	W	Total
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	28	15	14	6	62	27	152
Environmental factors and good resources	4	4	1	0	11	0	20
Supportive colleagues	16	12	6	0	21	8	63
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	1	6	2	2	11	2	24
Interested and supportive parents	2	1	2	1	3	4	13
Positive organisational influences	0	0	0	0	4	0	4
Children making good progress	5	13	9	6	19	8	60
Good salary or remuneration	2	0	1	0	2	0	5
Good training opportunities	3	10	1	0	6	0	20
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	11	4	2	3	6	5	31
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	14	16	7	2	42	16	97
Positive influences from external bodies	0	2	1	0	1	3	7
Total	86	83	46	20	188	73	496

The information in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 is summarised graphically in Diagrams 4.1 and 4.2 (n.b. These diagrams have been enlarged to enable the reader to view the detail).

The information presented in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 indicates that the principal motivators in these six schools are: 'children being well motivated,

interested or well behaved'; staff experiencing 'a sense of achievement from a completed or enjoyable task'; 'supportive colleagues' and 'children making good progress'.

Table showing demotivational responses categories cross-tabulated with each of the sample schools

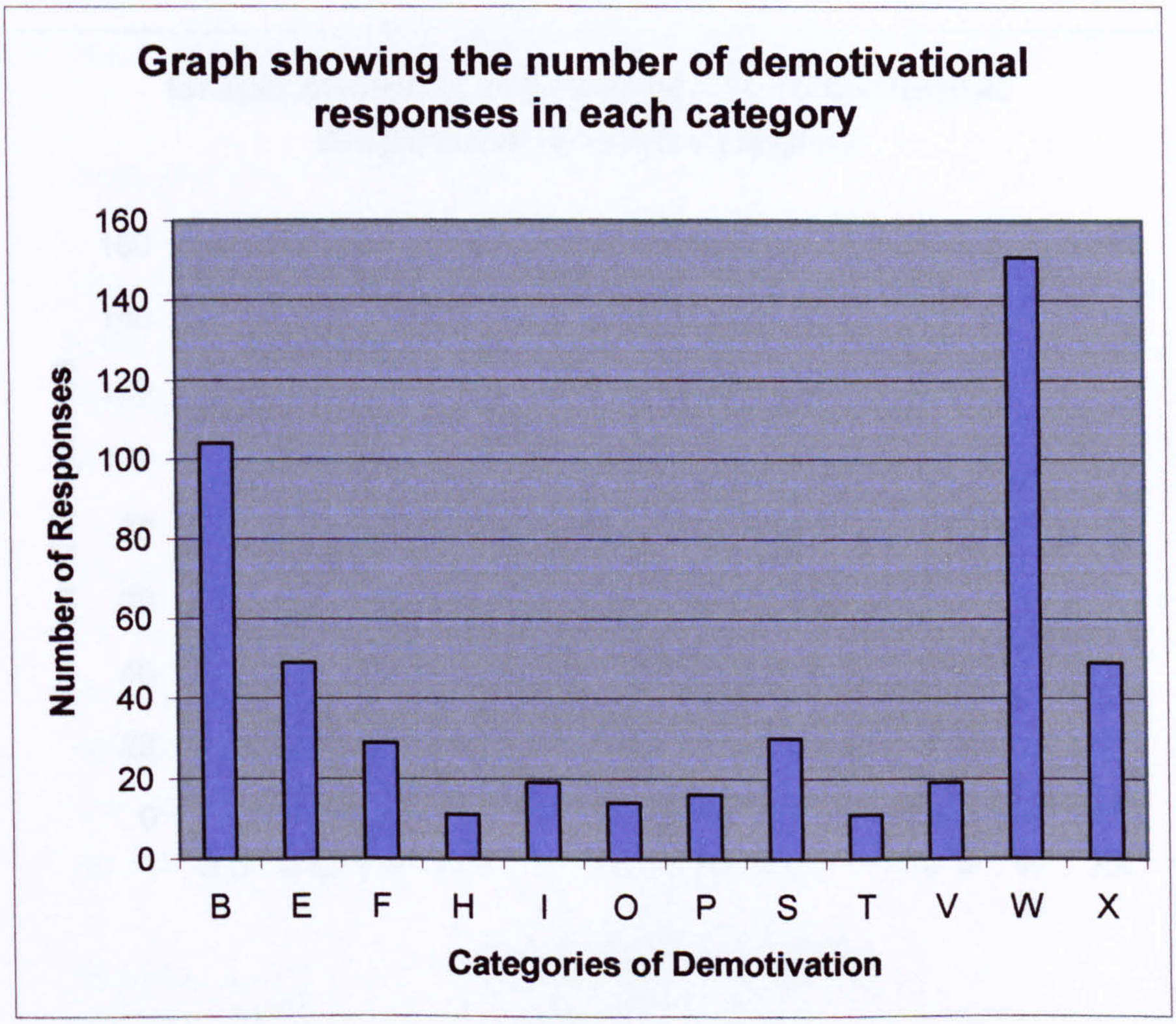
Table 4.3

Demotivators							
Schools	G	M	O	P	T	W	Total
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	12	22	5	1	42	22	104
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	6	17	1	1	20	4	49
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	4	8	5	1	6	5	29
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	3	0	0	1	7	0	11
Lack of interest or support from parents	0	9	0	0	4	6	19
Negative organisational influences	0	3	3	2	4	2	14
Children making little or no progress	2	1	0	0	13	0	16
Poor salary or remuneration	6	4	2	5	7	6	30
Inadequate training opportunities	0	8	0	0	3	0	11
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to Exercise autonomy	3	8	3	0	1	4	19
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, Meetings, planning	27	18	7	11	69	19	151
Negative influences from external bodies	6	18	7	5	4	9	49
Total	69	116	33	27	180	77	502

Specific examples from the diaries and interviews include:

'the children responded positively to the work set, and the rewards and sanctions',

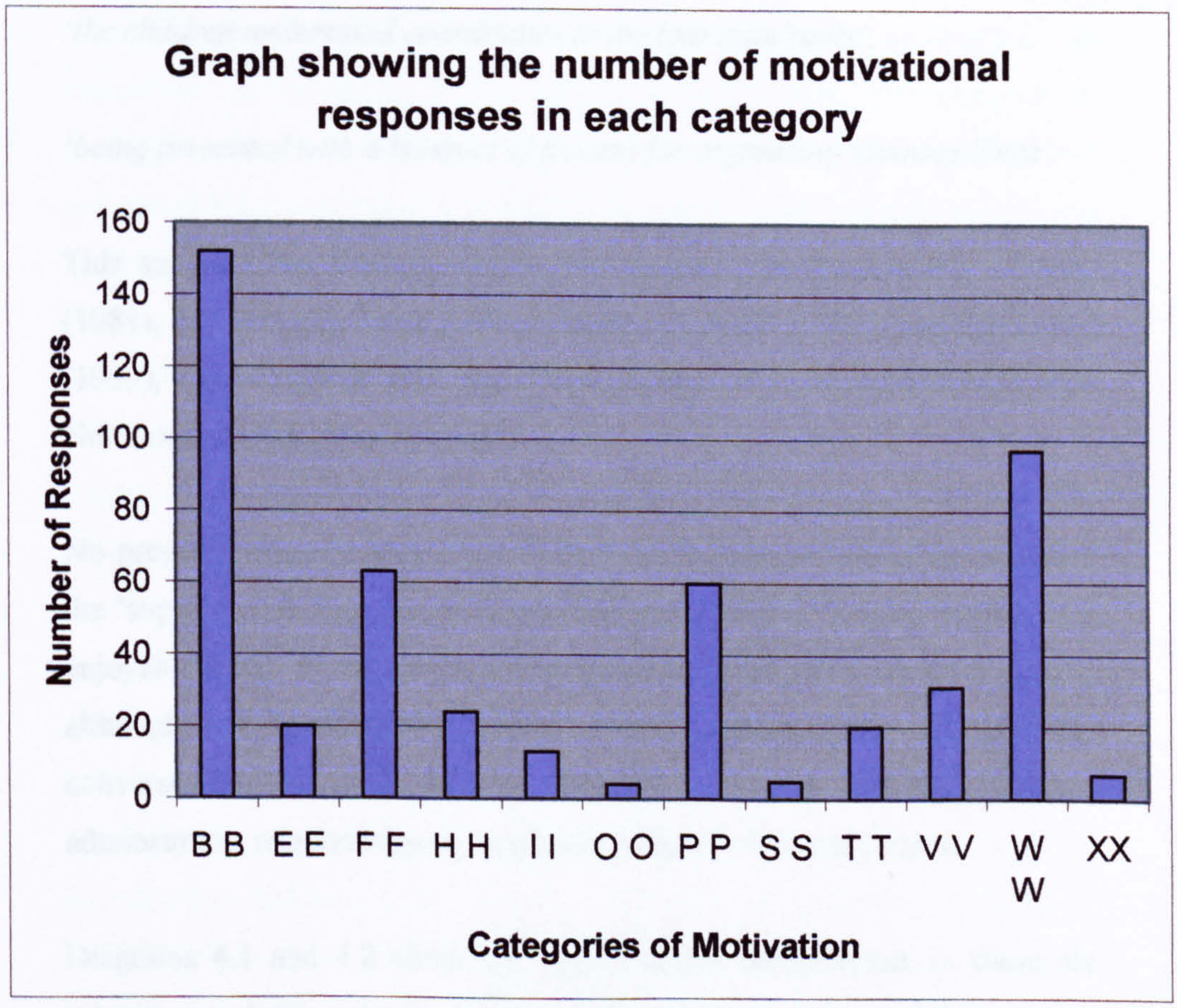
'working with colleagues to implement the new Numeracy Strategy',



Key

Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	B
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	E
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	F
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	H
Lack of interest or support from parents	I
Negative organisational influences	O
Children making little or no progress	P
Poor salary or remuneration	S
Inadequate training opportunities	T
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	V
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	W
Negative influences from external bodies	X

Diagram 4.2



Key

Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	B B
Environmental factors and good resources	E E
Supportive colleagues	F F
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	H H
Interested and supportive parents	I I
Positive organisational influences	O O
Children making good progress	P P
Good salary or remuneration	S S
Good training opportunities	T T
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	V V
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	W W
Positive influences from external bodies	X X

Diagram 4.1

'magical moments with children when the penny suddenly drops',

'the children understood coordinates in the four quadrants',

'being presented with a bouquet of flowers for organising Literacy Week'.

This supports the findings of the pilot project and the findings of Nias (1981), Sederberg & Clark (1990), Dinham & Scott (1998), and Scott *et al* (1999), all of whom identified the principal satisfier as working with children and seeing them achieve.

No previous research was found during the literature review that identifies the 'support of colleagues' or 'a sense of achievement from a completed or enjoyable task' as a source of motivation in primary school teachers, although both McClaughlin & Shea (1960) and Nias (1981) identified the converse, that is, uncongeniality between colleagues and poor teacher-administrator relationships as significant sources of dissatisfaction.

Diagrams 4.1 and 4.2 show the two principal demotivators in these six schools are having to 'work long hours with a heavy workload' and 'children behaving badly or showing a lack of interest'. Examples from the diaries and interviews include:

'Poor behaviour at lunchtime, leading to a disrupted afternoon session',

'A child I had been working with on appropriate behaviour for some time, hit another child',

'having to help with an after school club',

'having to attend a course after school',

'having to spend hours out of school on paper work – marking test papers and moderating'.

These findings are supported by the research of Nias (1981), who identified the principal dissatisfier as not teaching well due to bad behaviour, and Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) who found the commitment of new teachers to be dependent upon the support they get with boundary issues, such as behaviour. McClaughlin & Shea (1960) found sources of dissatisfaction of teachers in elementary schools to be related to workload, something that was confirmed by Holdaway (1978), and more recently by Scott *et al* (1999) who identified external factors such as workload associated with constant change, as a major source of dissatisfaction. Nias (1981) similarly identified unacceptable levels of stress and fatigue as a source or dissatisfaction.

All of the research cited above is based in contexts other than the English education system, except for that conducted by Nias (1981), which was conducted over twenty years ago, and prior to the 1988 Education Act a catalyst for major change to the education system.

In relation to concerns relating to behaviour, it is important to recognise that a number of the respondents expressed significant concern with considerable feeling during the interviews, about the behaviour and lack of support from of parents. These comments are included in the 'Lack of interest and support from parents' category', but the total of nineteen demotivational responses does not convey the impact that various incidents had apparently made upon the teachers concerned. Some of these comments are outlined below:

'I removed the toy and gave it back to the parent at the end of the day. She promptly gave it back to the child. The parent gave me no support at all.'

'The behaviour of children is a concern. Many have little respect for teachers, and neither do their parents.'

'His parents say all the right things but don't do anything.'

'Parents who are in your face.... had a go at me because the tickets had sold out early.'

'A grandma grumbled at me because he came out of school without his coat buttons done up.'

'A particularly difficult parent confronted a teacher out of school'

It is interesting to note that this was not an issue identified specifically within any of the research included within the Literature Review, and, therefore, perhaps this is an indication of the demands faced by teachers at the beginning of the 21st Century and how they have changed.

Some of the other key issues facing schools today are target setting, performance related pay and the quality of leadership, and yet neither of these has arisen significantly, as either a motivational or demotivational issue. One teacher commented negatively about the workload associated with the Threshold Application Process, but as Yukl (1975) commented; when staff are satisfied with leadership it will not be mentioned, it is only mentioned when staff are dissatisfied. The questions and requirements of both the diary and interview were left deliberately 'open', so that staff could raise the issues that were of importance to them, rather than being 'forced' to respond to previously determined categories. If either of these issues were of sufficient concern it could be argued they would have been raised. Equally, although these issues are not mentioned specifically, it could be argued that they are implied. Some of the paperwork and workload required from schools is generated by the task of target setting. What is the leadership of the school doing to manage this? How are staff supported and trained to meet these demands? These are some of the questions that could be asked by the schools, as a result of the present research and its findings.

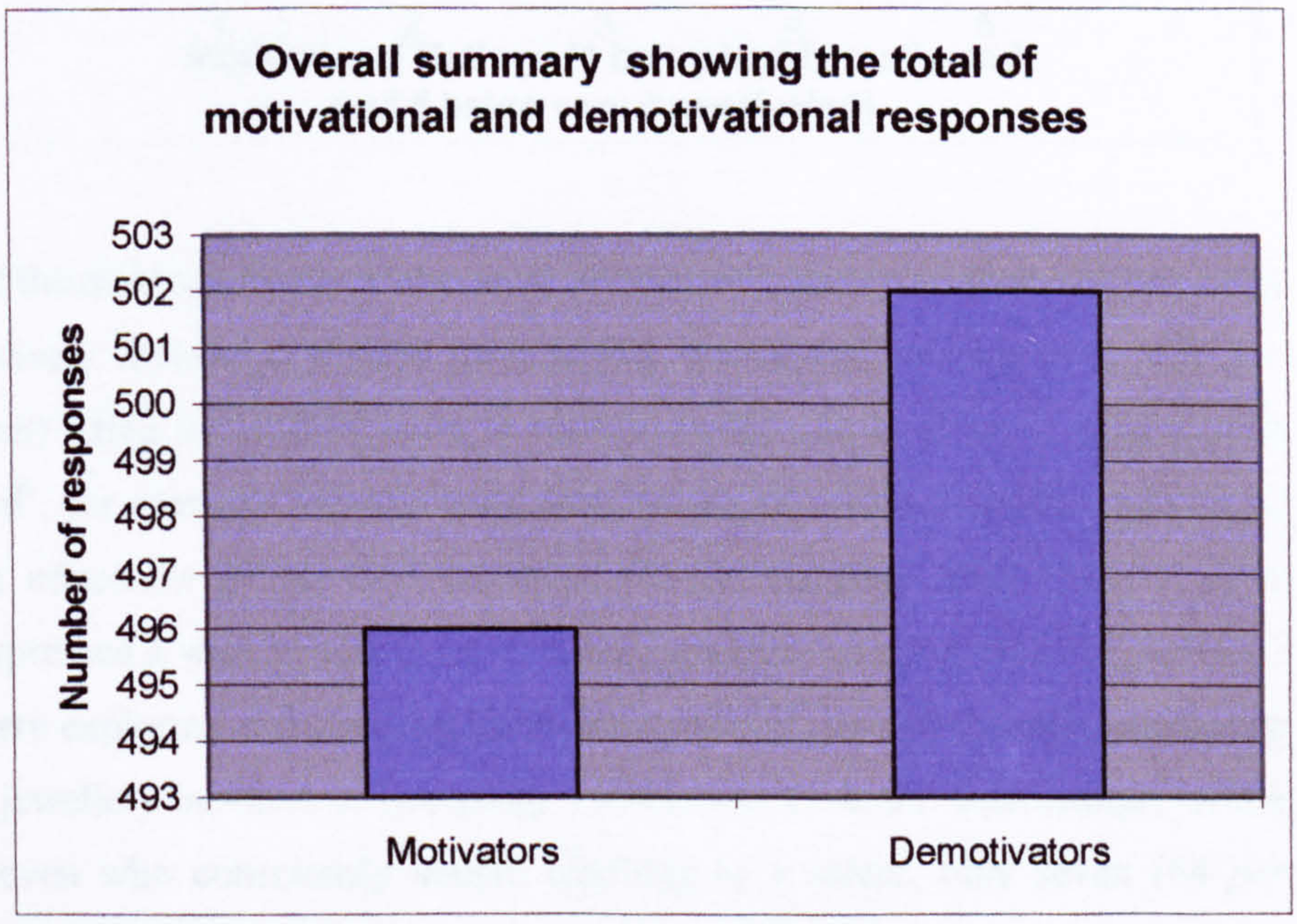
Calculation of the standard deviation, as a measure of spread, in relation to both the motivational and demotivational responses tabulated in 4.2 and 4.3, generated statistics of 42.9 and 41.4 respectively (see Appendix 7.44). This indicates minimal variation of spread between the two sets of data, suggesting that issues arising are equally varied in both cases.

The data in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 supports the findings of Sergiovanni (1966), Herzberg (1966) and Frase & Sorrenson (1992) who found that the absence

of motivators are not necessarily demotivators, that is, these factors are not on a conceptual continuum. They all identified that the factors contributing to job satisfaction and those contributing to dissatisfaction are largely independent. Satisfiers contribute to satisfaction if present, but not dissatisfaction if absent, and vice versa. The findings above show that 'supportive colleagues' are found to be a significant source of motivation, but 'unsupportive colleagues' are not a significant source of demotivation, and similarly 'children making good progress' is a source of motivation, whereas 'children making little or no progress' was not found to be a significant source of demotivation. The same cannot be said, however, for children's behaviour, which is a significant motivational (152 responses) and demotivational factor (104 responses), and for having an achievable workload, with 97 and 151 responses respectively.

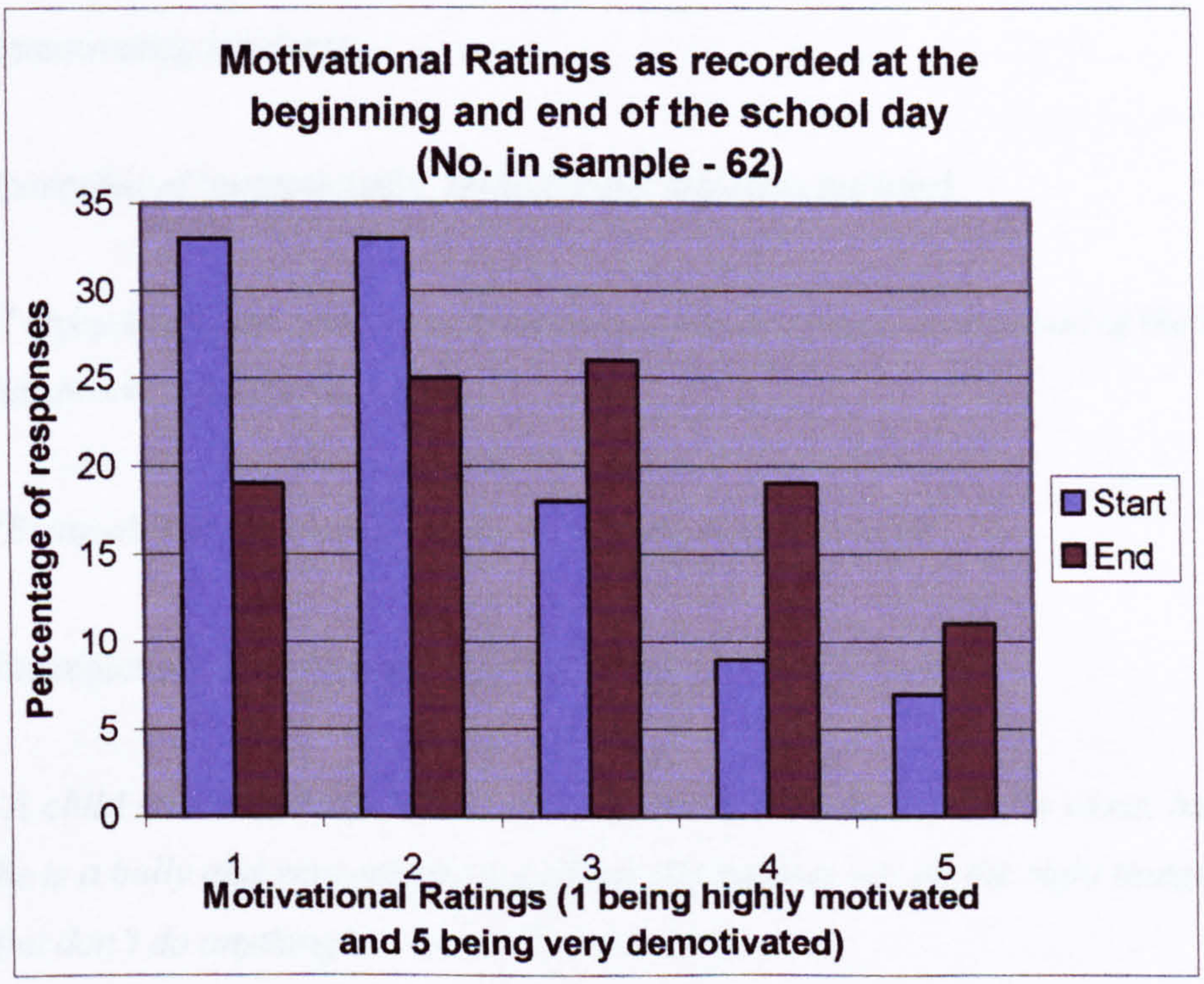
These findings therefore confirm Herzberg (1966), Sergiovanni (1966) and Frase & Sorrenson's (1992) conclusions, that the causes of dissatisfaction and satisfaction are generally independent, but not possibly to the degree concluded by these writers.

Diagram 4.3



At this point it will be useful to consider the relative impact of these motivational and demotivational issues. Diagram 4.3 shows that a total 502 demotivational comments were recorded, in comparison to 496 motivational comments. The difference in the total number of responses in the two categories is not as great, however, as the daily shift in motivational thresholds (see Diagram 4.4) might indicate.

Diagram 4.4



Of the eighteen teachers who were interviewed, eleven of them (61 *per cent*) actively decided to embark on teaching as a career, whereas seven (39 *per cent*) admit to teaching being a second choice career, or as 'a means to an end', for example, to eventually work as an educational psychologist or as an education officer in a museum. Of the eighteen, nine (50 *per cent*) expressed a wish to remain in teaching, whereas the other nine (50 *per cent*) were exploring and planning alternative possibilities, for example, setting up a jewellery business or becoming a classroom assistant. Interestingly of the eleven who consciously sought teaching as a career, only seven (64 *per cent*) now wish to remain in the profession. This statistic has recently been confirmed by a more extensive poll that Mori conducted with seventy

thousand and eleven teachers for the General Teaching Council (Woodward, 2003) which concluded that a third of teachers currently wish to quit the profession.

The above statistics inform a comparison between the relative impact of motivational and demotivational issues, and suggest that the latter has greater effect on teachers than the former. This is supported by a calculation of the arithmetic mean (see Table 4.4), of the ratings given by respondents at interview in relation to examples of 'exceptionally' motivating or demotivating incidents.

Examples of 'exceptionally' motivational incidents included:

'I enjoy taking the choir to performances outside school. I am proud of their hardwork and achievements',

'Being able to help a non-reader in my class learn to read',

Examples of 'exceptionally' demotivating incidents included:

'A child comes immediately to mind. There is a bright boy in my class, but he is a bully and very attention seeking. His parents say all the right things, but don't do anything',
'A new child arrived in my class and for a few days he was very disruptive – swearing, shouting, kicking the wall and throwing a chair'.

The eighteen interviewees were asked during the interview to rate these 'exceptional' motivational and demotivational incidents on a scale of one to eleven, with one indicating an incident that had very little impact on their feelings, and eleven for an incident that seriously affected them (see Appendix 7.39 - Questions 10 - 13).

As Table 4.4 shows, the mean rating for these 'exceptionally' demotivational incidents was higher than for the 'exceptionally' motivational incidents. A further review of the data shows that all of these

demotivational incidents were consistently rated more highly, or at the very least equal in terms of their impact, to motivational incidents. These

Mean and standard deviation of ratings given to 'exceptional' incidents

Table 4.4

	Mean Rating	**Standard Deviation**
'Exceptionally' motivational incidents	9.4	0.8
'Exceptionally' demotivational incidents	10.1	1.2

findings are supported by Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943): the principal demotivational factors are poor behaviour, which puts a teacher's Esteem Needs under threat, and the pressures of workload, which impact on a member of staff's Physiological Needs. Twenty of the staff recorded in their diaries that they were feeling 'tired'. The principal motivational issues, 'children being well motivated, interested and well behaved' and 'experiencing a sense of achievement from a completed or enjoyable task' are important for a teacher's Self Actualisation Needs. The former needs are lower down Maslow's Hierachy of Need and therefore it could be argued are relatively more important.

A review of the standard deviation in rating shown in Table 4.4 shows minimal variation in spread between the two sets of data. A slightly greater variation is indicated in relation to the ratings given to the demotivational incidents, suggesting a possibly wider variation in the way staff respond to such issues, than in relation to motivational incidents.

4.4 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The evidence will now be examined to determine whether or not, there is any indication that intrinsic factors are more important than extrinsic factors in the motivation of teachers. Using the definition that was outlined in the introduction, the responses collated are categorized in Tables 4.5 and 4.6.

Table 4.5 would suggest that intrinsic motivation is an important issue for teachers. This is further supported by an additional analysis of the data which reveals that 94 *per cent* of the respondents made comments relating to intrinsically motivational factors; this contrasting with only 55 *per cent* of respondents making comments relating to extrinsically motivational issues.

Specific comments noted in relation to intrinsically motivational factors included:

'It's those magical moments when the penny suddenly drops – a child who was finding division hard, suddenly puts the pencil down, and says its not hard its easy – I can do it',

'Good positive responses from the children in most lessons today',

and in relation to demotivation:

'Back in September, a parent started yelling at me in front of everyone. She accused me of spitting in her child's face. Her son is very difficult and I had told him off. She took his side.'

'Poor behaviour at lunchtime, leads to disruption in the afternoon, and lots of problems to solve. This took time from teaching'.

Table showing motivational responses categorized into Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors

Table 4.5

Motivational Factors	**Number of responses**
Responses that relate to Intrinsic factors (Well motivated, interested and motivated children, supportive colleagues, children making good progress, opportunities for flexibility and to exercise autonomy, a sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task)	403
Responses that relate to Extrinsic factors (Environmental factors and good resources, interested and supportive parents, positive influences from home, positive organisational influences, good salary and remuneration, good training opportunities, positive influences from external bodies)	93
Total	496

Table showing demotivational responses categorized into Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors

Table 4.6

Demotivational Factors	**Number of responses**
Responses that relate to Intrinsic factors (Children badly behaved or showing a lack of interest, unsupportive or critical colleagues, children making little or no progress, limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy, a lack of a sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task)	168
Responses that relate to Extrinsic factors (Poor environmental factors and, or inadequate resources, negative influences from home, lack of interest or support from parents, negative organisational influences, poor salary or remuneration, inadequate training opportunities, long hours and high workload, negative influences from external bodies)	334
Total	502

The findings of Denning (1986) and Scott *et al* (1999) similarly identified seeing children achieve, and the sense of personal achievement, as significant intrinsic motivational factors. Bellott & Tutor (1990) suggested a weighting of three to one in relation to the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that teachers are likely to find motivational. The present research, however,

indicates a ratio that is even greater, that is, four to one. Table 4.6 also indicates that extrinsic factors are important demotivationally, with the ratio of intrinsic to extrinsic sources of demotivation being approximately one to two. Bellott and Tutor (1990), however, did not provide any statistical data for comparison.

Determining which responses fall into which classification is not easy, as mentioned earlier, even with the help of definitions: something that is also acknowledged by Nias (1981). The researcher deliberated for a long time on whether or not 'workload', mentioned on one hundred and fifty one occasions in relation to demotivation, is intrinsic to the role or extrinsic. It was decided on the latter, as much of the workload that teachers find themselves coping with, is in response to external changes. Scott *et al* (1999) used a similar classification. It might however be argued that managing workload is an inherent task for all employees and therefore it might be deemed to be intrinsic to the role. The classification used, in relation to all of the responses has been made clear to enable the reader to make up their own minds on this issue. As Scott *et al* (1999) suggested, perhaps the difficulties in classification that have been experienced in relation to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, help to explain the contradictions found in research, on this matter. Hayden (1993) supports the findings, along with Scott *et al* (1999), that intrinsic motivation is more important to teachers than extrinsic motivation, whereas Azumi & Lerman (1987) found to the contrary.

As illustrated in Diagram 2.2 and discussed in the literature review, Friedlander (1963), Lortie (1975), Ozcan (1996) and Dinham & Scott (1998) conclude that their findings indicate the existence of a third domain. Perhaps this will help to solve the problem of categorization. Even if we use a three way classification, namely, intrinsic, extrinsic and school based factors, this still requires us to decide whether 'workload' is a school based factor or an extrinsic factor. Although much workload originates from Department for Education and Skills initiatives, school-based factors, such

Table showing motivational responses categorized three ways:
Intrinsic, Extrinsic and School based Factors
Table 4.7

Motivational Factors	**Number of responses**
Intrinsic factors (Well motivated, and interested children, children making good progress, a sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task)	309
Extrinsic factors (Positive influences from home, good salary and remuneration, interested and supportive parents, positive influences from external bodies)	49
School – based factors (Environmental factors and good resources, supportive colleagues, positive organisational influences, opportunities for flexibility and to exercise autonomy, good training opportunities)	138
Total	496

Table showing demotivational responses categorized three ways: Intrinsic, Extrinsic and School based Factors

Table 4.8

Demotivational Factors	**Number of responses**
Intrinsic factors (Children badly behaved or showing a lack of interest, children making little or no progress, a lack of a sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task)	120
Extrinsic factors (Negative influences from home, lack of interest or support from parents, poor salary or remuneration, long hours and high workload, negative influences from external bodies)	260
School based factors (Poor environmental factors and or inadequate resources, unsupportive or critical colleagues, negative organisational influences, limited opportunities for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy, inadequate training opportunities)	122
Total	502

as the nature of the school, class sizes and the expectations of the headteacher also have an impact. This clearly makes it difficult to determine whether or not this is totally a school-based factor or an external issue.

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 show the data collected analysed into three domains.

Examples of comments reclassified into this third category, include, from the motivational perspective:

'headteacher's comments were very appreciative',

'course was very helpful and interesting, lots of sensible advice',

and demotivationally,

'extremely stressed about time spent de-jamming the photocopier',
'not looking forward to the staff meeting – they're always so long'.This reclassification confirms the importance of intrinsic factors in relation to motivation, and extrinsic factors in relation to demotivation, but perhaps most significantly it reveals the relative influence of 'school based factors' with respect to both teacher motivation and demotivation. This indicates therefore, that this should be an important consideration for headteachers and school managers, at a time of crisis in teacher recruitment and retention, as it includes issues over which schools have direct influence.

4.5 Ethnographic influences on motivation and demotivation

Identifying predetermined response categories on the questionnaire, for example, for ethnicity and qualifications, helped to speed up this analysis and also helped to reduce the possibility of misinterpretation.

Concern was expressed during the pilot about the relevance of asking questions related to ethnicity, religion and marital status. This was not an issue during the main study, as steps were taken to manage these concerns.

Seven diaries were not returned or were returned not named. The ethnographic characteristics of the remaining sixty-two teachers in the

Table displaying motivational response categories
cross-tabulated with gender
Table 4.9.

Motivational response categories	**Male**	**Female**
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	23	129
Environmental factors and good resources	2	18
Supportive colleagues	9	54
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	0	24
Interested and supportive parents	1	12
Positive organisational influences	1	3
Children making good progress	3	57
Good salary or remuneration	0	5
Good training opportunities	0	20
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	3	28
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	15	82
Positive influences from external bodies	0	7
Total	57	439

Table displaying demotivational response categories cross-tabulated with gender

Table 4.10

Demotivational response categories	**Male**	**Female**
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	18	86
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	7	42
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	0	29
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	2	9
Lack of interest or support from parents	0	19
Negative organizational influences	0	14
Children making little or no progress	4	12
Poor salary or remuneration	2	28
Inadequate training opportunities	0	11
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	0	19
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	17	134
Negative influences from external bodies	0	49
Total	50	452

sample are summarised in Appendices 7.4 – 7.14. Where the total is less than sixty-two it is because there was an unclear, or missing response on the Initial Questionnaire. It is not clear whether these questions were omitted deliberately, erroneously or because the question was unclear. The non-responses are excluded, as appropriate, from the ethnographical summaries.

The data collected was then assembled into contingency tables, with respect to motivation, and demotivation, for example below, in relation to gender in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, and in Appendices 7.15 – 7.34 in relation to the other ethnographic characteristics being studied

These contingency tables were then analysed to determine whether or not motivation or demotivation are affected by the following factors: gender, age, marital status, the age and number of children living at home, role within the school, teaching qualifications, the number of years teaching and the number of years within the current school, religion and ethnic origin.

The Chi-squared test was then used in each case to determine whether the number of responses is significant.

Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1996) advise that most researchers set their significance levels at 0.05 or 0.01

All calculations have been generated using Microsoft EXCEL and examples have been included in Appendix 7.45. The expected frequency has been calculated as:

$$\frac{r}{n} \times s$$

where:

r is the total number of responses in a given category, for example, a total of 33 comments relating to 'poor salary and remuneration',

n is the total number of staff in the sample answering that question, for example, 61 staff gave details of their teaching qualification (see Table 4.11), and

s is the number of teachers, of a given characteristic, for example, 56 female teachers.

The information in Table 4.11 would suggest, therefore, that marital status, the age and number of children living at home, role within the school, the length of teaching experience, length of time in current school, ethnicity and religion are all significant factors in the levels of motivation and demotivation of teachers at the 99 *per cent* significance level, and at the 95 *per cent* significance level that age is a factor in relation to motivational issues.

Almost without exception the ethnographic characteristics have been found to be significant at the 99 *per cent* significance level in relation to both motivational and demotivational responses. Higher levels of significance have been identified by the shaded Chi-squared statistics.

The findings for each of these ethnographic characteristics will now be considered in turn, and in the light of previous research, although it must be remembered that very little of the research quoted has been conducted within the context of English primary schools.

Chi-squared statistics for motivational and demotivational responses in relation ethnographic characteristics

Table 4.11

Response categories	Chi-squared statistic - Motivation	Chi –squared statistic - Demotivation	Degrees of freedom *v*	Number of respondents *n*
Gender	19.06	**29.18**	11	62
Age	47.44*	46.2	33	62
Marital status	**51.6**	**67.66**	22	61
Age of children at home	**101.08**	**116.23**	44	62
Number of children at home	**161.95**	**172.03**	33	62
Role in school	**110.53**	**107.83**	66	61
Teaching qualification	**314.54**	**279.46**	66	61
Years of teaching experience	**89.72**	**151.32**	44	62
Years in current school	**51.23**	**63.94**	33	60
Ethnic origin	**264.21**	**187.98**	88	60
Religion	**58.69**	**86.5**	33	61

v is the degrees of freedom within the contingency table, for example, in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, v = 11 where v = (rows – 1) x (columns 1)

* is significant at the 0.05 per cent level (Silver, 1992)

The figures in bold show Chi-squared statistics (see Table 4.11) that are outside the 0.01 probability limits; therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and the variable can be deemed to be a significant factor in either teacher motivation or demotivation, as appropriate. The Chi calculations that are highlighted are the extremes, that is, those that are furthest outside the probability limits.

Influence of Age on Motivation and Demotivation

The findings of this research would suggest that at the 99 *per cent* significance level age is not a significant factor in the level of either motivation or demotivation of teachers. A closer review of the data collected confirms this, revealing that a teacher with two years experience and another with twenty years of experience both commented about the motivational impact of having

'half day release from the classroom to help catch-up on paperwork',

and another pair of teachers, one with three years experience, and the other with nearly twenty-three years experience, both commented on the behaviour of children being an issue for which they feel concern.

These findings confirm those of Kaufman (1984) and Tin Low & Marican, but are contrary to the findings of Sergiovanni (1968) and Robertson & Smith (1985). At the 95 *per cent* significance level, however, the findings of the present research do indicate a link between age and motivation. Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) identified a link between age and motivation, specifically concluding that novices and veterans show the greatest commitment. Similarly Galloway *et al* (1982) and Shreeve *et al* (1986) found that older teachers expressed a higher level of satisfaction than younger teachers.

What then are the issues that the various age ranges find motivational and demotivational? For all age ranges the most significant motivator is 'well

behaved, interested and motivated children' and for all but the 41 – 50 year old age range the principal demotivator is 'long hours and high workload'. This seemingly conflicts with the findings of Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990), who found novices and veterans to show the greatest commitment. It is impossible, however, to make a direct comparison with the study by Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990), as they did not specifically focus on teacher demotivation.

Calculation of the standard deviation of motivational response in relation to age generates further conflicting results.

Table showing standard deviation of motivational and demotivational response in relation to age

Table 4.12

Age	**Standard deviation in motivational response**	**Standard deviation in demotivational response**
20 – 30 years	8.06	9.47
31 – 40 years	9.25	8.11
41 – 50 years	10.14	7.07
Over 50 years	9.29	12.47

The table tends to suggest that, as teachers get older the standard deviation in relation to motivational responses increases, whereas the opposite is true for demotivation. Teachers that are over 50 years old seemingly defy both trends!

In conclusion, therefore, according to the present research, teachers are motivated principally by 'well behaved, interested and motivated children',

but when they get older are more likely to be demotivated by the 'long hours and heavy workload'.

Influence of Gender on Motivation and Demotivation

Table 4.11 indicates at the 99 *per cent* significance level that gender is an important issue in relation to the demotivation of teachers. A specific example of this includes a male teacher who expressed concern about the salary of teachers, whereas a female teacher commented that,

'teachers are paid quite well'.

Conversely however, no significant difference was found in relation to motivational issues. For example both a male and female teacher commented on the variable nature of the role,

'*every day is different*'

and

'*I like it because it's unpredictable*'.

These conclusions are drawn with caution however, as the number of male teachers in the sample is small (see Appendix 7.5).

Rudd & Wiseman (1962), Sergiovanni (1968), Robertson & Smith (1985), Tin Low & Marican (1992), Scott and Dinham (1998), Sergiovanni (1968), and Shreeve *et al* (1986) all found motivational differences in gender. But conversely, Chapman & Hutcheson (1983), Kaufman (1984) and Maehr & Braeskamp (1986) found no motivational differences; something that was later confirmed by Dilworth (1991) who undertook an extensive survey of existing research in education. The focus for all of these research projects, however, was solely motivation, rather than both motivational and demotivational issues, and all were undertaken in contexts other than English primary schools.

As Table 4.13 shows, in the present study, the number of responses recorded for males demotivationally, is very similar *pro rata* to the expected. This conflicts with the findings of Shreeve *et al* (1986) who identified that men are generally less satisfied with the profession than women, although the difference they also reported was only marginal.

Table showing the number of demotivational responses classified by gender

Table 4.13

Number in sample	Gender	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
6	Male	50	49
56	Female	452	453

Calculation of the standard deviation (see Table 4.14) suggests that comments made by the male teachers in the sample, in relation to both motivation and demotivation, show a wider deviation from the norm than their female counterparts.

Table showing standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to gender

Table 4.14

Gender	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Male	12.28	12.62
Female	8.26	7.92

A further examination of the evidence for both genders reveals that the most significant motivator is 'well behaved, interested and motivated children' and conversely the principal demotivator for men is 'children who are badly behaved or disinterested'. Women expressed most concern for the 'long hours and workload'. Perhaps the latter is explained by the demands that some woman face with household responsibilities, although with the current trend for role reversal, and without additional research this is difficult to confirm.

Influence of Marital Status on Motivation and Demotivation

The findings in Table 4.11 indicate a link, at the 99 *per cent* significance level, between marital status and both motivation and demotivation, with the greatest level of statistical significance being identified in terms of the latter. This is contrary to the findings of Galloway *et al* (1982) and Kaufman (1984), who found no correlation between marital status and job satisfaction.

Table showing the number of demotivational responses in relation to marital status

Table 4.15

Number in sample	Marital Status	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
40	Married or with a partner	290	309
21	Single	189	158

As Table 4.15 shows the number of demotivational responses recorded for single teachers is higher than might be expected *pro rata*, suggesting that single teachers are more likely to be affected demotivationally by the challenges of the education system, than their counterparts who are married or living with a partner. Specific examples of demotivational comments made by single teachers include:

'Parents grumbling at you for the smallest things, when you have given up your own time to go on a residential trip',

'having to try and motivate other staff on a very low salary',

'poor support for Special Educational Needs by the Local Authority'.

Perhaps this conclusion could be supported by the fact that those individuals who are in supportive relationships outside school, are less likely to be emotionally vulnerable to the stresses of the workplace. The apparent link between demotivation and single teachers, was confirmed by both Lortie (1975) and Tin Low & Marican (1992), but conversely these studies concluded that married teachers are better motivated. Neither of these studies, however, specifically investigated demotivation.

The findings of the present study are illuminated further, when the standard deviation of response in relation to both motivation and demotivation is considered. As Table 4.16 shows in relation to both motivational and demotivational comments, a higher deviation is recorded by those teachers who are either married or with a partner, than those who are single. This suggests that there is a wider range of issues that are found to be both motivational and demotivational to teachers in the former category.

Table showing standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to marital status

Table 4.16

Marital status	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Married or with a partner	9.69	9.73
Single	9.15	8.15

A further inspection of the data collected shows that all groups, irrespective of their marital status, have the same principal motivators and demotivators, that is 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', and 'workload and long hours' respectively. A combination of these findings would suggest, therefore, that single teachers are more likely to be demotivated by 'workload and long hours' than their colleagues. Whilst teachers who are 'married or with a partner' appear generally to be better motivated, they are affected both motivationally and demotivationally by a wider range of issues.

Influence of 'age' and 'number of children' living at home on Motivation and Demotivation

Table 4.11 clearly indicates a correlation at the 99 *per cent* significance level between both, the age and number of children living at home, and the motivation and demotivation of teachers: the greatest level of statistical significance being identified in terms of the latter.

Table 4.17 shows that the number of responses recorded for teachers with children to care for at home, is demotivationally lower than might be expected *pro rata*, based on the number in the sample. This suggests that these teachers are less likely to be affected demotivationally by the challenges of the education system, than their counterparts, who have no children to care for at home.

Table showing the number of demotivational responses in relation to 'whether or not there are children to care for at home'.

Table 4.17

Number in sample	Parental Status	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
28	Children at home	192	226
34	No children at home	310	275

Examples of demotivational comments made by teachers without children to care for at home included:

'The child in my class was constantly very aggressive, and had to be restrained. He had experienced all kinds of sexual abuse, but no one wanted to help',

'Six children returned no homework – same few!'

'Anyone entering the profession, needs to think carefully how it affects the balance of your life. You have to give one hundred per cent, and sometimes have nothing to give outside school.'

These findings are notably similar to the findings in relation to marital status, and could possibly be explained by the fact that teachers, who have children that rely upon them, and from whom they will also derive pleasure and support, have less time or inclination to be swayed by the challenges they face at work.

A further review of the data indicates that the motivational issues affecting teachers with children of different ages to care for at home, are the same for all groups, except for teachers with children in the 'under 5 years' of age category. For all teachers except those in the latter group, the most significant motivator is 'well behaved, interested and motivated children'. For teachers with children at home under five years of age, the most significant motivator is 'a sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task'. As one such teacher commented,

'I finished the day putting up a display, which I enjoy.'

Conversely the principal demotivator for all groups, except teachers with children in the 12 – 17 year old category, is the 'long hours and workload' associated with teaching, and for teachers with 12 – 17 year olds it is 'badly behaved or uninterested children'. Teachers in this category commented,

'Children not listening, despite trying several strategies, and lots of positive reinforcement',

'Class too noisy. The teacher who takes my class for non-contact time, can't control them',

'Confrontational behaviour from a Special Needs child'.

A further examination of the data highlights the motivational and demotivational issues that affect teachers with differing numbers of dependent children. For teachers in all groups the most significant motivator is 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', and the principal demotivator for all groups, except teachers with three dependent children, is

the 'long hours and workload' associated with teaching. For the latter group the principal demotivator is 'badly behaved or disinterested children'. Examples of such comments made by teachers in this group included,

'having to keep repeating instructions',
'children's behaviour was unsatisfactory'.

Table 4.18 suggests that the deviation of motivational responses is greater for teachers with children to care for at home, than those who have not. In relation to demotivational responses the reverse seems to be true. Table 4.19, however, suggests that there are no obvious trends in relation to the deviation of response and the age of children to care for at home.

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to 'whether or not there are children to care for at home'

Table 4.18

Children at home	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
None	8.60	8.95
One to three	8.88	7.49

Table showing standard deviation of comments relative to the age of children to care for at home

Table 4.19

Age of children to be cared for	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
None	8.29	8.94
5 years and under	10.52	12.14
6 – 11 years	11.72	7.48
12 – 17 years	9.46	10.6
18 years and over	12.64	6.95

It is of course difficult to be conclusive, because some teachers have children in more than one age group, and have differing care arrangements for their family. Within the sample there were also two single parents, who face additional demands, but generally the above findings indicate that teachers without children to care for at home are demotivated by a wider range of issues than those who have children to care for at home, and in particular are demotivated by the long hours and workload associated with the profession.

Influence of the role of the respondent on motivation and demotivation

The findings of this research indicate, at the 99 *per cent* significance level, that the role of the respondent in the school is linked to both motivation and demotivation, with the greatest level of statistical significance being identified in terms of the former.

The Spearman Rank correlation coefficients have been calculated in an attempt to determine the exact nature of the relationship between the role of the respondents and motivation. The coefficients generated were -0.07143 and -0.07143 in relation to motivation and demotivation respectively, indicating with statistical certainty (using statistical tables in Essential Statistics – Rees D.G. 1995, 3rd edn.) no linear correlation between teachers holding increasingly responsible roles and their levels of motivation and demotivation. In order to calculate this coefficient it was necessary to order the roles in terms of seniority (See Appendix 7.46). The ranking, however, is something that could be open to debate, particularly with the introduction of the Upper Pay Scale, as teachers on the Main Pay Scale and those with management allowances are both eligible for promotion in this respect. The coefficient has therefore been calculated using two other possible permutations. This produces coefficients of -0.21423 and -0.17857, and -0.28571 and 0.28571. Neither permutation results in a coefficient that is statistically significant, thereby confirming no obvious linear relationship between the two variables. This perhaps does, however, give a glimpse of the potential dangers and limitations of statistical analysis!

The statistical analysis summarised in Table 4.20 indicates that the standard deviation is greater for teachers in all roles in relation to motivational issues, than demotivational issues, with the exception of those on the Upper Pay Spine. For the latter group of teachers the greatest deviation is recorded in relation to demotivational issues. The standard deviation of zero in relation to both motivational and demotivational comments arises from the fact that the one, and only, member of staff in this category recorded no comments

on their diary, only their motivational ratings at the beginning and end of each day.

Table 4.21 generates information that is even more illuminating; suggesting that Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs), teachers on the Main Pay Spine (MPS), those with one management allowance and those on the Leadership Pay Spine (LPS), all made more motivational comments than might have been predicted. This, to some extent, is confirmed by the findings of Dinham & Scott (1998), Kaufman (1984) and Robertson & Smith (1985),who all claimed that senior managers and class teachers appeared to be most satisfied, whilst middle and lower management seemed to be least satisfied.

A closer inspection of the data revealed a class teacher who comments on their well behaved class, and a deputy who comments positively about,

'the challenge of being in charge, because the head is out!'.

Perhaps the central issue is the extent to which an individual has control over their work. Specific comments within the diaries and interviews would support this theory, in that teachers claimed frustration when such things as workload, working hours and resources were beyond their control. Some specific comments made on this issue, in relation to demotivation, included:

'given SEN chart for child in class who is unable to meet his targets – he really needs proper support, therefore feel he is not having his needs met',

'apprehensive about staff meeting today on formative assessment – will it mean more paper work? ',

'Governors 'do' at 7pm tonight – got to return to work',

'seem to have lots to do and not enough time'.

Table showing standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to role in school

Table 4.20

Role	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT)	9.55	9.44
Main Pay Spine (MPS)	8.86	8.86
One Management Allowance (M1)	9.8	7.67
Two Management Allowances (M2)	9.16	8.98
Leadership Pay Spine (LPS)	9.84	7.61
Upper Pay Spine (UPS)	11.23	19.84
Consultant	0	0

Table showing Motivational Responses in relation to 'role within the school'

Table 4.21

Number in sample	Role within the school	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
6	NQT	60	45
19	MPS	155	142
20	M1	165	149
9	M2	64	67
4	LPS	43	30
2	UPS	9	15
1	Consultant	0	7

A further examination of the data collected in this study indicates that most teachers, irrespective of their role within the school, find 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', the most significant factor in relation to their motivation, except for the two teachers who have gone through the Threshold and are paid on the Upper Pay Spine, and for those staff the significant motivator is 'children making progress'. Both of these motivational responses are, of course, intrinsic to the role of a teacher, and

relate to a positive response from the children. Conversely the principal demotivator for all postholders, except teachers on the leadership spine and those with one management allowance, is the 'long hours and workload' associated with the profession. For the latter two groups, the significant demotivator is 'badly behaved or disinterested children'. Whilst neither of these two groups are immune to the workload and long hours, the responsibility for discipline in primary schools falls heavily on those staff on the leadership spine; in this instance all three were either deputies or headteachers, and perhaps staff with one management point find themselves with increased responsibility for behaviour management across the wider school, something that they may well be encountering for the first time in being paid a management allowance.

In conclusion, therefore, in relation to the role that a teacher holds within the school; less senior teachers are seemingly the better motivated, by a wide range of issues, but predominantly 'well behaved, interested and motivated children'.

Influence of Teaching Qualifications on Motivation and Demotivation

The findings in Table 4.11 suggest at the 99 *per cent* significance level that teaching qualifications are linked to both motivation and demotivation, with the greatest level of statistical significance being identified in terms of the former. This is confirmed by the findings of Scott *et al* (1999) and Argyle (1989, 2nd edn.) but is contrary to the findings of Tin Low & Marican (1992). A closer inspection of the data is necessary in order to determine whether the connection is logical, that is, better-qualified staff are the most satisfied. The Spearman Rank correlation coefficients in relation to qualifications held by the respondents were found to be 0.82143 and 0.85714 for motivation and demotivation respectively, indicating with a 95 *per cent* certainty (using statistical tables in Essential Statistics – Rees D.G. 1995, 3rd edn.) that there is a strong positive correlation between teachers in the sample holding higher-level qualifications, and their levels of motivation and demotivation. This suggests, therefore, that teachers with higher levels of qualification are the group of teachers most likely to respond both

motivationally and demotivationally to the challenges of today's education system. For example a teacher with a one-year Post-graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) recorded the comment,

'*tired after marking a pile of Science books - it took ages*',

whereas a teacher with a Masters degree, who also comments demotivationally about the paper work, follows this with the remark that she

'wouldn't want to leave the classroom. Every day is different'.

An NQT also with a Bachelor of Education Degree recorded demotivationally that she had,

'spent ages explaining to one of my children with English as an Additional Language, about the Queen Mothers' funeral, and then afterwards he asked 'What funeral?' – he clearly had understood nothing!',

whereas another teacher with a Certificate of Education, and a Diploma in teaching English as a Second Language, commented motivationally,

' despite a fading voice due to laryngitis, I had a good story writing session, as I was able to give enough time to the children at an early stage of English'.

It is acknowledged, that it is possible to identify individual comments to illustrate almost any point, but these comments have been chosen specifically, as they illustrate the statistically indicated trend.
In order to calculate the Spearman Rank correlation coefficient, it was necessary to rank the qualifications in terms of seniority (See Appendix 7.46). This, however, is something that could be open to debate, for example, whether or not a Post-graduate Certificate of Education is a better qualification than a Bachelor of Education Degree. The coefficient has, therefore, been calculated using several other possible permutations (see Appendix 7.46), but all result in noticeably similar coefficients, that is, 0.96429 and 0.946643, and 0.89286 and 0.92857. All of the coefficients fall

within the 95 *per cent* confidence limit and indicate, therefore, that better qualified teachers are more likely to be motivated by today's primary education system, but equally are more likely to become demotivated by the challenges they face. It could perhaps be argued that better qualified staff are more likely to have the confidence to form and express opinions. The use of a range of methodology, for example, the diaries which are simply a log of events, gave all participants an equal opportunity to contribute, irrespective of their level of confidence and their ability to form judgments.

Further statistical analysis was undertaken to determine the standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to qualifications. This information is displayed in Table 4.22. No general trends are evident, except possibly that the most and least qualified have recorded the largest deviation in both motivational and demotivational response.

A closer examination of the data collected in this study indicates that teachers, irrespective of their level of qualifications, find 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', the most significant factor in relation to their motivation. The only exception was the one overseas trained teacher, deemed to be unqualified by current Department for Education and Skills criteria, who finds the sense of achievement from 'an enjoyable or completed task' to be her greatest motivator. Perhaps the English primary education system compares favourably to her experiences at home! Conversely the principal demotivator for all teachers, except teachers with a Masters degree, was identified as the 'long hours and workload' associated with the profession. Many teachers study for additional qualifications in their spare time and this is likely to have been the case with these four respondents. Perhaps this suggests that teachers, who are able to prioritise and manage their time to facilitate part-time study, are less likely to feel demotivated by the workload associated with teaching. This could be a useful indicator for governing bodies in recruiting staff, although arguably if this is the case, why did the one respondent, who has a doctorate, not respond in a similar manner? The numbers in the samples are of course small and generalisation must be undertaken with caution.

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to qualifications

Table 4.22

Qualifications	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Overseas trained	19.84	12.8
Certificate of Education (Cert.Ed)	7.76	10.42
Bachelor of Education or Bachelor of Arts in Education (B.Ed/BA.Ed)	8.86	8.16
Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)	8.92	8.65
Qualified Teacher Status (QTS)	9.19	9.54
Masters Degree	8.59	7.63
Doctorate	10.8	10.79

In summary therefore in relation to the qualifications held by teachers, better-qualified staff are likely to be the most motivated, and the main source of their motivation is 'well behaved, interested and motivated children'. There are also some indications that teachers, who have undertaken accredited in-service study, may be less prone to the demotivation of workload and long hours. The Spearman Rank coefficients suggest a strong linear correlation between teachers holding higher-level qualifications and their levels of motivation and demotivation. Teachers with higher-level qualifications are apparently most likely to be affected both motivationally and demotivationally by the challenges of today's education system.

Influence of 'length of teaching experience' and the 'number of years in current school' on Motivation and Demotivation

Table 4.11 indicates that the both the length of teaching experience and the number of years in the current school are statistically significant in relation to both motivation and demotivation. The link between length of teaching experience and motivation is confirmed by both Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990) and Tin Low & Marican (1990), and the link between the length of service in the current school and motivation, by Rosenholtz & Simpson (1990), Tin Low & Marican (1992) and, by Dilworth (1991) in her review of existing educational research. Contradictory findings were, however, generated by Kaufman (1984), and more recently by Dinham & Scott (1998).

A closer examination of the data collected in this study indicates that teachers, irrespective of their total length of service and their length of service within their current school, find 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', the most significant factor in relation to their motivation. The only exception are the two teachers who have more than thirty years total service, one of whom has more than thirty years service in

the same school, and they find the 'sense of achievement from an enjoyable or completed task' to be their greatest motivator, recording comments such as,

'providing opportunities that I know they would otherwise not have e.g. a visit to the ballet at the Royal Shakespeare Theatre',

'a good morning's work in all three sessions',

'the school ran smoothly today, only a few messages left to clear'.

The principal demotivator for most teachers was identified as the 'long hours and workload' associated with the profession. The only exception to the latter being the group of sixteen teachers who have completed 5 – 10 years in the same school, and they cite 'children's poor behaviour and lack of interest' as the most significant demotivator. Comments recorded by this group included,

'with some of the children you need the patience of an angel',

'a boy I had been working with on behaviour, hit another child today'.

'felt shattered – the children were hard work in the afternoon'.

This is surprising, as ten of the sixteen teachers in this category are in their first teaching post. If these teachers are so demotivated in their current school, it might be thought they would have applied for posts elsewhere. A further review of the data reveals, however, that twelve of the sixteen hold some form of management role, which brings extra responsibility and remuneration. This would suggest that there are compensatory motivational factors coming into force.

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to the number of years in current school

Table 4.23

Years of teaching in current school	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
< 5 years	9.01	9.06
5 to 10 years	9.21	7.95
11 to 20 years	7.7	8.2
> 20 years	11.79	15.59

In relation to the number of years teaching in their current school, the teachers who recorded the largest deviation in response were those with the longest service records (see Table 4.23). This finding must be treated with caution as there was only one member of staff in this category. There is a similar trend in deviation of response in relation to the overall 'length of service', (see Table 4.24) but not apparently as conclusively. There are however thirteen staff in the category of teachers with 'more than twenty years' total teaching experience.

The category recording the smallest deviation in motivational responses relative to 'length of service in current school', is the 11 – 20 years of experience group, and in demotivational responses, the 5 – 10 years of

experience group. In relation to the total 'length of experience' the reverse has been recorded (see Table 4.24).

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to overall 'length of service'

Table 4.24

Length of service	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
< 5 years	9.56	11.62
5 to 10 years	7.83	7.47
11 to 20 years	8.64	7.01
21 to 30 years	11.45	7.57
> 30 years	8.28	14.2

Finally the number of actual responses recorded was compared with the number of responses that might have been expected *pro rata* (see Table 4.25).

Tables 4.25 and 4.26 show that teachers with 11 – 20 years of total service and 11 – 20 years service within their own school, recorded significantly more demotivational responses than might have been expected. Six of these

Demotivational Responses in relation to overall 'length of service'

Table 4.25

Number in sample	Length of service in years	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
19	5 or less	167	156
18	6 – 10	94	148
12	11 – 20	145	99
10	21 - 30	72	82
2	over 30 years	24	16

Demotivational Responses in relation to 'length of service in current school'

Table 4.26

Number in sample	Length of service in current school (in years)	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted responses
34	5 or less	289	273
15	6 - 10	85	120
10	11 – 20	102	80
1	More than 20 years	5	8

teachers fall into both categories, that is, have 11 – 20 total years of service and 11 – 20 years in their current school. The categories mask the exactcharacteristics of the respondents, but a further review of the research data reveals that only two of those teachers are in their first post. It is probable, therefore, that these groups are the ones that are most likely to become demotivated by a relatively narrow range of issues; the principal demotivator being 'workload and long hours'.

Influence of ethnicity and religion on motivation and demotivation

The findings in Table 4.11 clearly indicate a correlation, at the 99 *per cent* significance level, between both religion and ethnicity, and motivation and demotivation. Interestingly, the greatest level of statistical significance is identified with respect to religion in terms of demotivation, and in terms of ethnic origin in relation to motivation.

Table 4.27 suggests that, demotivationally, Islamic teachers and those having no religion, made more responses than might be expected. This indicates that these groups of teachers are more prone to demotivation, than their colleagues. Examples of comments recorded include, an Islamic teacher who commented,

'children's behaviour unsatisfactory' ,

'started the day tired following some comments from colleagues' ,

and teachers that registered no recorded religion, who also commented demotivationally :

'two children did not take their spelling home to learn deliberately,'

' the general public attitude to teachers is not good. They just think we have loads of holidays',

'a huge number of people wanting to see me/not having time for any of them.'

Demotivational Responses in relation to religion

Table 4.27

Number in sample	Religion	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
45	Christianity	312	370
1	Hinduism	6	8
2	Islam	20	16
13	No religion	164	107

The total responses made were then summarized in relation to the ethnic groupings and compared with the number of predicted responses *pro rata* in Table 4.28. This shows that the number of responses recorded motivationally for teachers from the Mixed Race, White Other and Other categories are greater than might be expected *pro rata*, based on the number

in the sample. This suggests therefore, that these teachers are more likely to be affected by the motivational rewards of today's education system than their counterparts from other ethnic groups, who consistently recorded fewer responses motivationally than might be expected.

Motivational Responses in relation to Ethnicity

Table 4.28

Number in sample	Ethnicity	No. of responses recorded	No of predicted Responses
1	Black Caribbean	6	8
1	Chinese	0	8
1	Indian	5	8
2	Mixed Race	37	17
1	Other	25	8
1	Pakistani	6	8
2	White European	10	17
1	White Other	11	8
50	White UK	396	413

A

further examination of the data collected in this study indicates that

teachers, irrespective of their religious commitment and ethnic background, find 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', the most significant factor in relation to their motivation. The only exceptions were the two Black Caribbean and Chinese teachers who identified the 'sense of achievement from a completed or enjoyable task' as the most motivational.

They recorded comments such as,

'I was able to organise the infant choir for next week's rehearsal quite quickly,'

'I now have time to observe the children and record these observations',

'The little ones are entertaining when they meet something for the first time'.

Conversely, the principal demotivator for the majority of teachers, irrespective of their religious or cultural background, was identified as the 'long hours and workload' associated with the profession. The exceptions were the Islamic and Hindu teachers, and the Indian and Pakistani teachers, that is, three teachers in total. They identified 'children's poor behaviour and lack of interest' as the issue that they found to be most demotivating and recorded, for example:

'students behaviour – they become very hyperactive in the afternoons',

'lack of response from the children – objectives not achieved'.

Finally the standard deviation of response, both motivationally and demotivationally, was calculated in relation to each ethnographic category. This information is summarised below in Table 4.29. Statistically the standard deviations of response for the various ethnic groups have been calculated, but possibilities for interpretation are limited because of the small number of respondents in most of the categories (see Table 4.28). For example, the one Chinese teacher made no responses categorised as motivational. In relation to religion, Table 4.30 would suggest that Hindu teachers recorded the widest deviation in response, both motivationally and demotivationally, but as there was also only one respondent in this category. This conclusion is, therefore, similarly tentative.

As the literature review revealed, research into ethnicity and religion generally gives mixed messages. A difference in race, in relation to motivation and demotivation, was confirmed by Dilworth (1991) and McClelland (1996), however, research conducted by Kohn & Schooler (1983), Chapman (1982) and Chapman & Hutcheson (1983), suggested to the contrary. Maehr & Braeskamp (1986) found no correlation between motivation, and either religion or ethnicity.

Surprisingly very little research appears to have been undertaken about the significance of either ethnicity or religion in relation to motivation. There is of course the potential for this subject alone to form the basis of a whole new piece of research on motivation, exploring any one of the issues raised in this section. The analysis reported above in relation to both ethnicity and religion, must be interpreted with extreme caution because of the very small numbers within some of the categories. Notwithstanding this caveat, the statistics above indicate in terms of religious background, Islamic teachers and those having no religion appear to be more prone to demotivation, than their colleagues. The principal demotivators are workload and poorly behaved or disinterested children. In terms of ethnic background, teachers from the Mixed Race, White Other and Other categories appear to be the most motivated, the principal motivator being well behaved, interested and motivated children.

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to ethnicity

Table 4.29

Ethnicity	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Black Caribbean	14.43	13.82
Chinese	0	27.64
Indian	17.24	18.64
Mixed Race	13.17	8.82
Other	15.44	17.05
Pakistani	14.43	18.63
White European	17.24	9.14
White Other	13.1	6.38
White UK	8.12	8.41

Standard deviation of motivational and demotivational comments relative to religion

Table 4.30

Religion	Standard deviation in relation to Motivational comments	Standard deviation in relation to Demotivational comments
Christianity	9.24	7.85
Hinduism	17.24	18.63
Islam	9.14	7.17
None	7.84	9.6

Conclusion of sections on ethnographic influences

The ethnographic characteristics of the sample in relation to motivation and demotivation have been explored in considerable detail. Generally the motivators and demotivators of the various groups have been found to be similar, that is 'well behaved, motivated and interested children', in relation to the former, and 'workload' and 'poorly behaved and disinterested children' in relation to the latter. Although there are similarities, there are also variations. This clearly suggests that leaders of schools need to be aware of, and responsive to, the individual needs of their staff, which may change if their circumstances outside school change. As Hayden (1993)

advises, a school leader should know each member of staff individually and what motivates them at different times, and as Evans (1992) recommends, only when knowing them as individuals, can a headteacher search for commonalities and emerging patterns which may yield generalisation. There is, for example, a notable similarity between teachers with partners, husbands or children, that is, dependents outside school, and those with a religious conviction.

A review of the data collected in relation to the ethnographic characteristics of the sample suggests, at the 99 *per cent* significance level, that marital status, the age and number of children living at home, role within the school, the length of teaching experience, length of time in current school, ethnicity and religion, are all significant factors in the levels of motivation and demotivation of teachers, and at the 95 *per cent* significance level, that age is a factor in relation to motivational issues.

More specifically, teachers are motivated principally by 'well behaved, interested and motivated children' but in general become less well motivated as they get older, when they are more likely to become demotivated by 'long hours and high workload'. This appears to be confirmed by the fact that less senior teachers are better motivated than those in middle management positions, but is contradicted to some extent by the fact that better qualified staff are likely to be the most motivated. In terms of ethnic background, teachers from the 'mixed race', 'white other' and 'other' categories appear to be the most motivated, and their principal motivator is likewise, 'well behaved, interested and motivated children'.

Men appear to be slightly less satisfied with the profession than women, and the principal demotivator is 'children who are badly behaved or interested'. Similarly, teachers who have a total of 11 – 20 years of service, and 11 – 20 years in their current school, are the ones that are most likely to become demotivated, and their principal demotivator is 'workload and long hours'.

In terms of religious background, Islamic teachers and those having no religion are more prone to demotivation, than their colleagues. The principal

demotivators for these teachers are both 'workload' and 'poorly behaved or disinterested children'.

Single teachers, and those without children to care for at home, are more likely to be demotivated by 'workload and long hours' than their colleagues. Conversely, there are some indications that teachers who have undertaken accredited in-service study may be less prone to the demotivation from workload and long hours. Perhaps, demotivationally, workload is less of an issue for teachers who are used to managing a wide range of other priorities, for example part-time study or, caring for children or a partner. Perhaps these findings can also be supported by the fact that teachers who have husbands, partners or children that rely upon them, and from whom they also derive pleasure and support, have less time or inclination to be swayed by the challenges they face at work. There is of course the question of the nature and the longevity of these family relationships, but that was beyond the scope of this study.

4.6 Demographic influences

In the spirit of openness the researcher of the present study has included within Appendix 7.2 a short 'pen portrait' of each of the schools in the sample, in which the relevant characteristics of each school are clearly tabulated, for easy access and cross-referencing.

The means of recorded comments was calculated *per* respondent in each school, and are displayed along with the standard deviations, for comparison purposes, in Table 4.31. These, however, need to be interpreted with care. A first glance might suggest that the staff in School P, a three-form entry urban infant school, is the most demotivated, and that staff in School O, a two class rural primary school, is the most motivated.

A table showing the mean and standard deviation of response made by staff within each of the schools

Table 4.31

	Motivational Reponses		Demotivational Responses	
Schools	Mean response	Standard Deviation	Mean response	Standard Deviation
G	10.6	2.3	7.6	2.5
M	8.1	0.9	11.8	0.6
O	11.8	2.5	8.3	2.8
P	9.5	2.2	13.5	1.9
T	7.8	1.9	7.4	2.0
W	6.1	1.7	6.7	1.7

Consideration needs to be given to the fact that four interviews were conducted in School T, a large multicultural urban primary school with twenty-one classes, and four interviews were also conducted in School W, a three-form entry junior school in an Education Action Zone, with twelve classes. There was therefore more opportunity *per* head of staff to register views in School W than T.

Number of motivational and demotivational responses in each school

Table 4.32

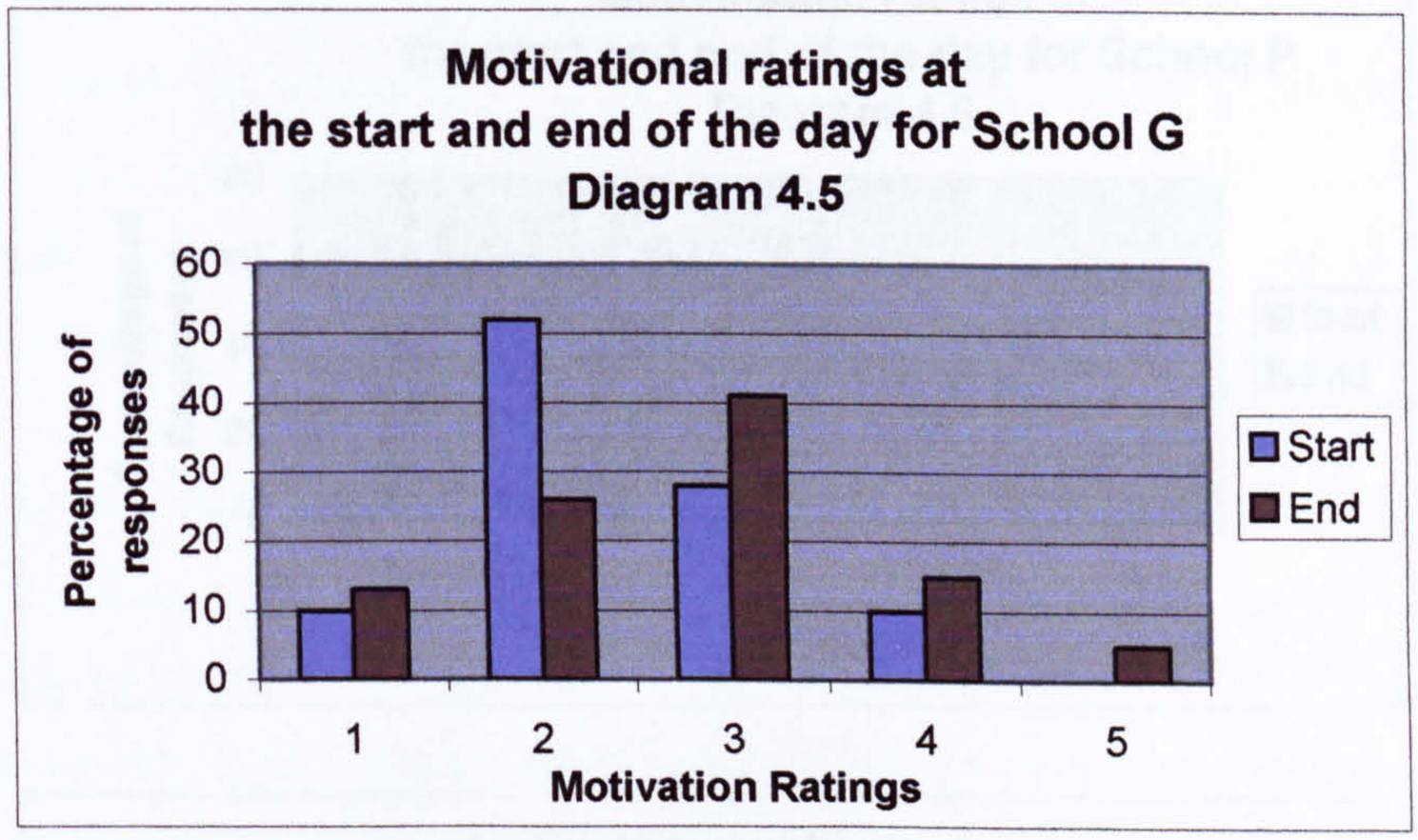
Schools	No. of staff in the sample	Total number of Motivational responses	Total number of Demotivational responses
G	9	86	69
M	10	83	116
O	4	46	33
P	2	20	27
T	24	188	180
W	13	73	77

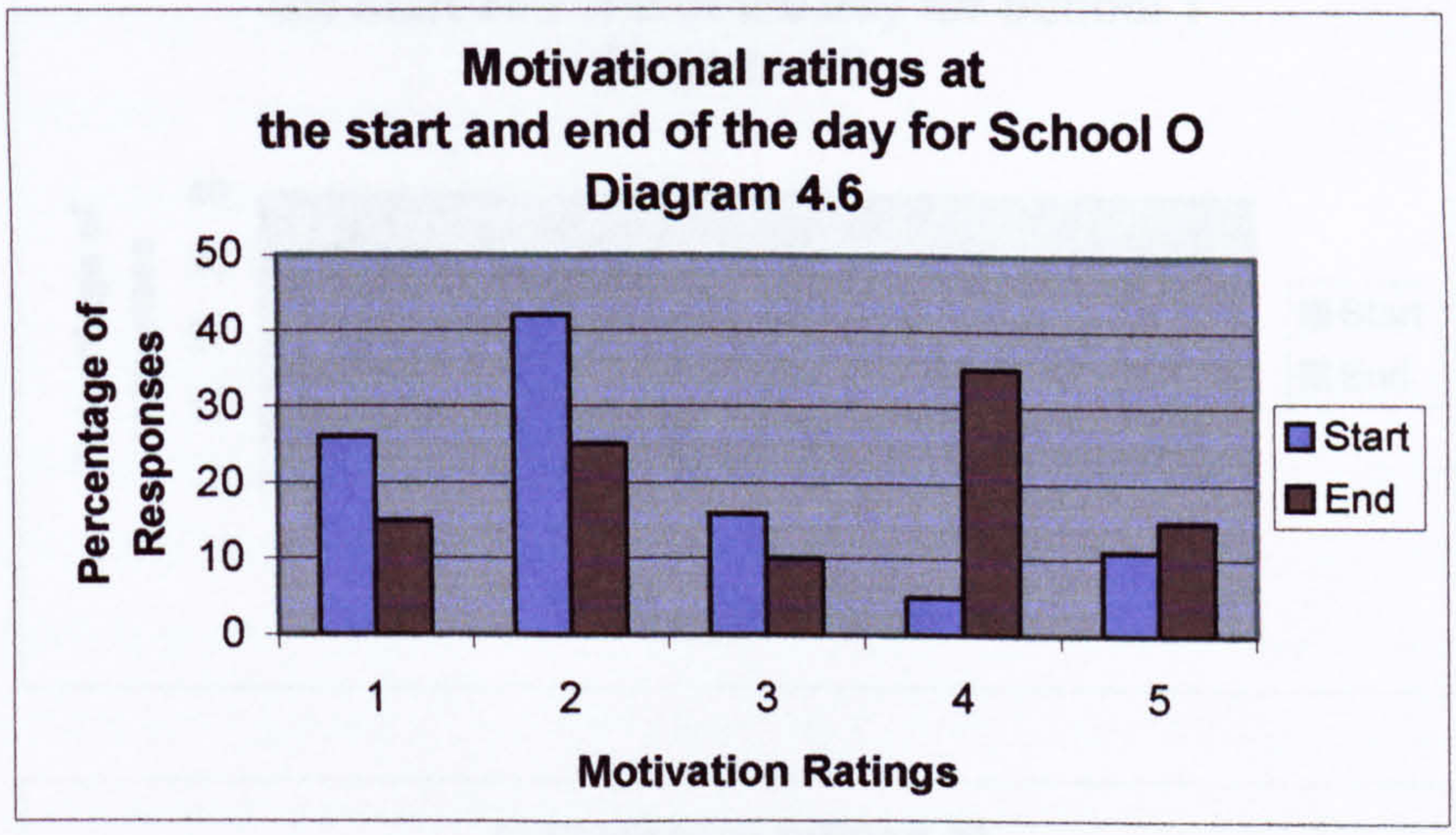
There would appear to be no obvious explanation for the variations in standard deviation recorded in Table 4.31. The standard deviation in relation to both motivation and demotivation is considerably lower, however, in School M, suggesting that the staff in this school, at the time the data was collected, were both motivated and demotivated by a narrower range of issues than staff elsewhere.

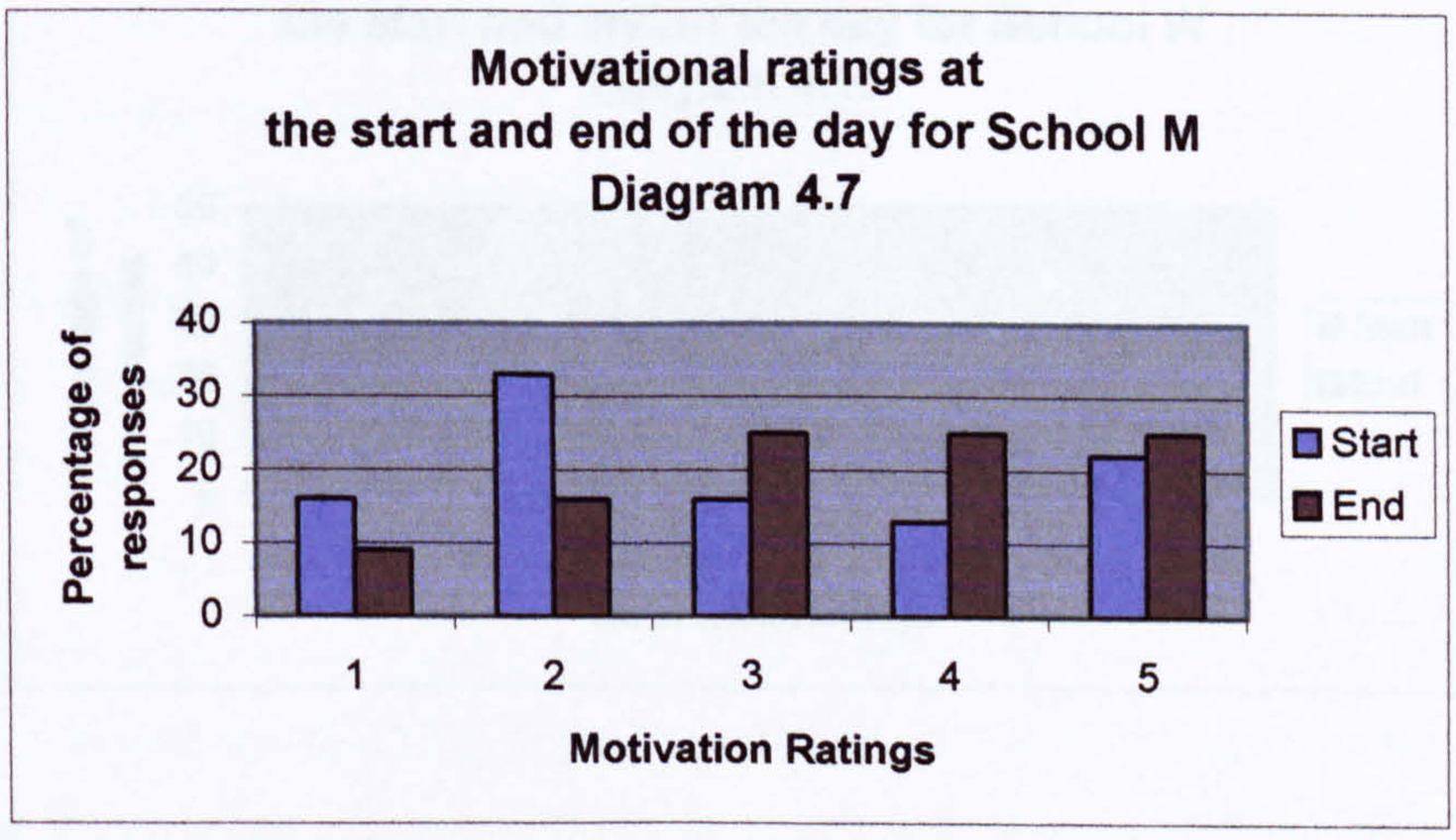
A comparison of the number of motivational and demotivational responses within each school, (see Table 4.32) suggests that the staff in schools G, (a one form entry primary school with less than 5 *per cent* free school meals), O and T are generally well motivated, recording more motivational responses than demotivational responses in each case, whereas staff in schools M, (a one and half form entry primary school), P and W appear generally demotivated, recording more demotivational than motivational

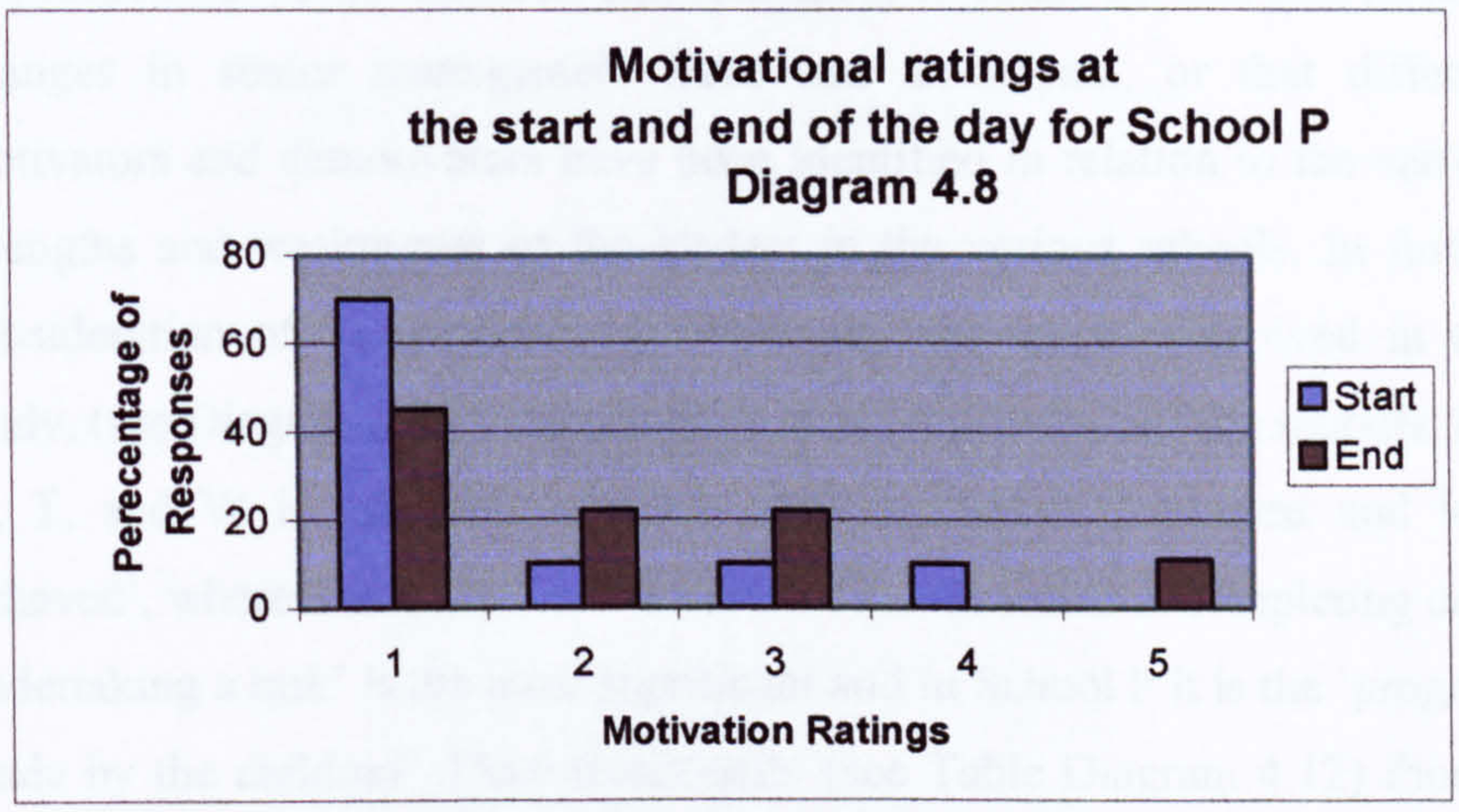
comments. The evidence was, however, collected over a period of half a term, and the possibility that the time in the term has had an influence upon motivational thresholds, cannot be ignored. Might there be other reasons for these differences in motivation? The characteristics of the schools are outlined in Appendix 7.2, and a review of that information in relation to the above analysis, reveals that the main commonality of schools G, O and T, is that they all cater for the same age range of children, that is, 5 – 11 years. The three schools are, however, very mixed in terms of their size, their location and the home background of their pupils. The motivational thresholds within each school were also examined, using the ratings made at the start and end of each day, by the staff whilst completing their diaries. This unfortunately is no more illuminating, being similar in all of the sample schools. This data is represented in Diagrams 4.5 – 4.10 and shows a clear shift towards demotivation between the beginning and the end of the day. The possible reasons for this have been explored in a previous section.

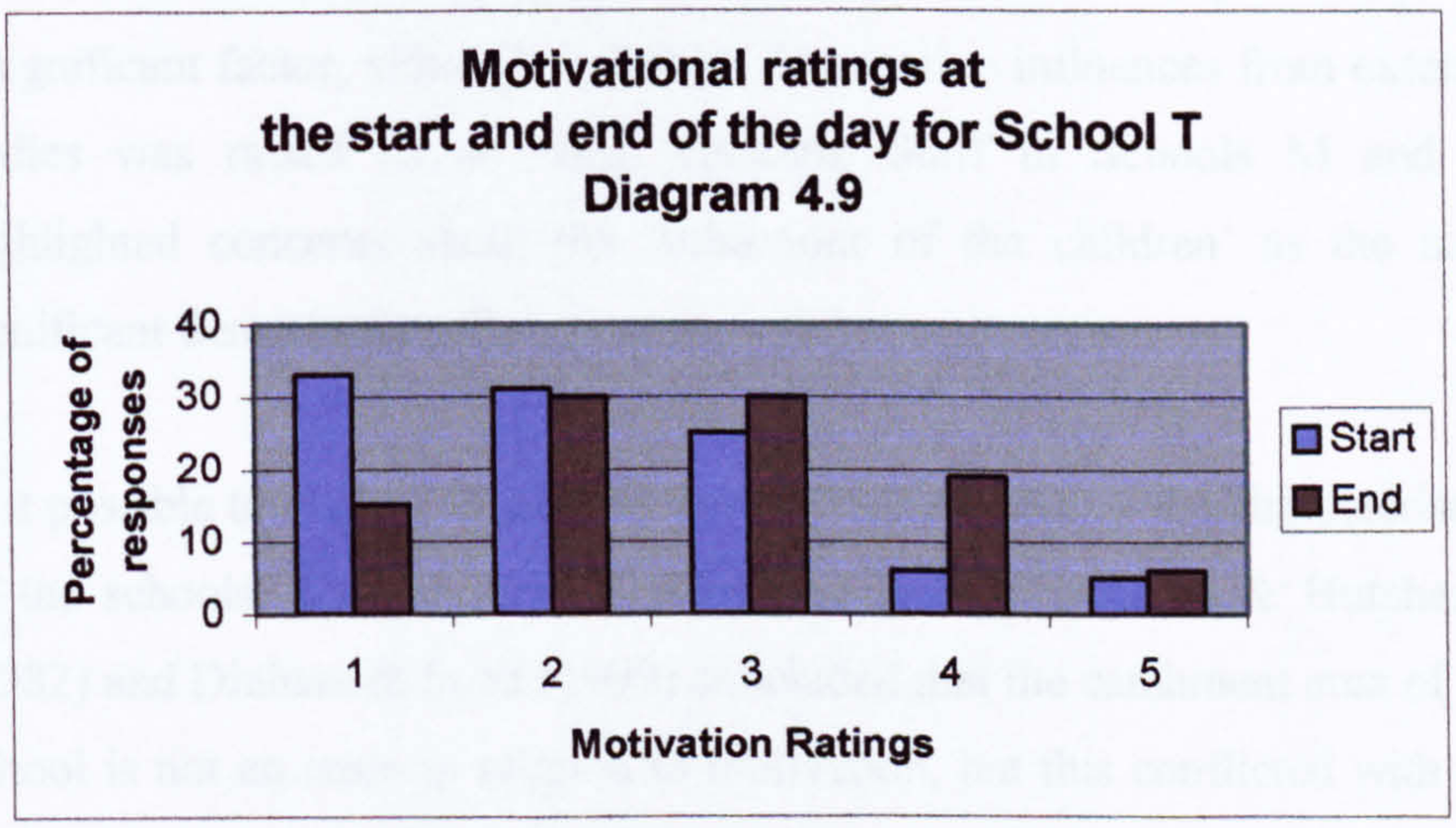
Appendix 7.2 shows that all of the schools were judged, by OFSTED, at their last inspection, to have leadership and management that are at least strong and positive, and in most cases very good. The schools that were selected for this study were, however, chosen because of their demographic differences not for the qualities of their leadership and management. All of the schools that were approached agreed to take part. It is deemed unlikely that a school with poor leadership and management, if it had been asked to take part, would have declined, firstly, because of other perceived priorities, and it is also possible that the management of the school would not have had the vision or foresight to see the usefulness of such a study, and secondly, in such schools, the organisational and procedural systems may well not have been sufficiently established to manage the completion of the data gathering instruments. It is of course impossible to confirm or refute this hypothesis from the data gathered here, but as has been mentioned previously, there was a very low response, and some management queries relating to the data collected in school P. The headteacher willingly agreed for the school to take part, but the follow up action was limited.

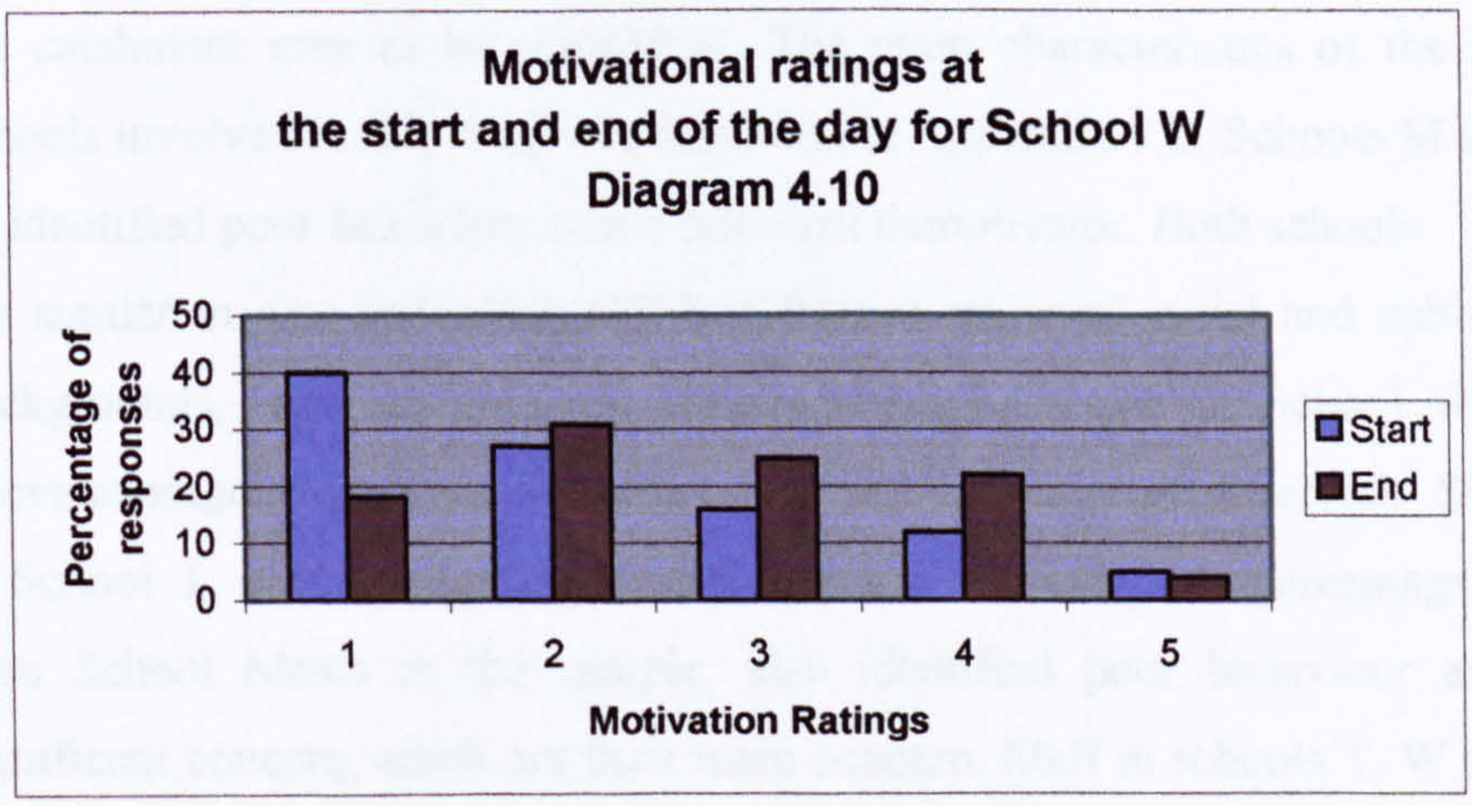

Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School G
Diagram 4.5
Percentage of responses
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
1
2
3
4
5
Motivation Ratings
Start
End


Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School O
Diagram 4.6
Percentage of Responses
50
40
30
20
10
0
1
2
3
4
5
Motivation Ratings
Start
End


Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School M
Diagram 4.7
Percentage of responses
40
30
20
10
0
1
2
3
4
5
Motivation Ratings
Start
End

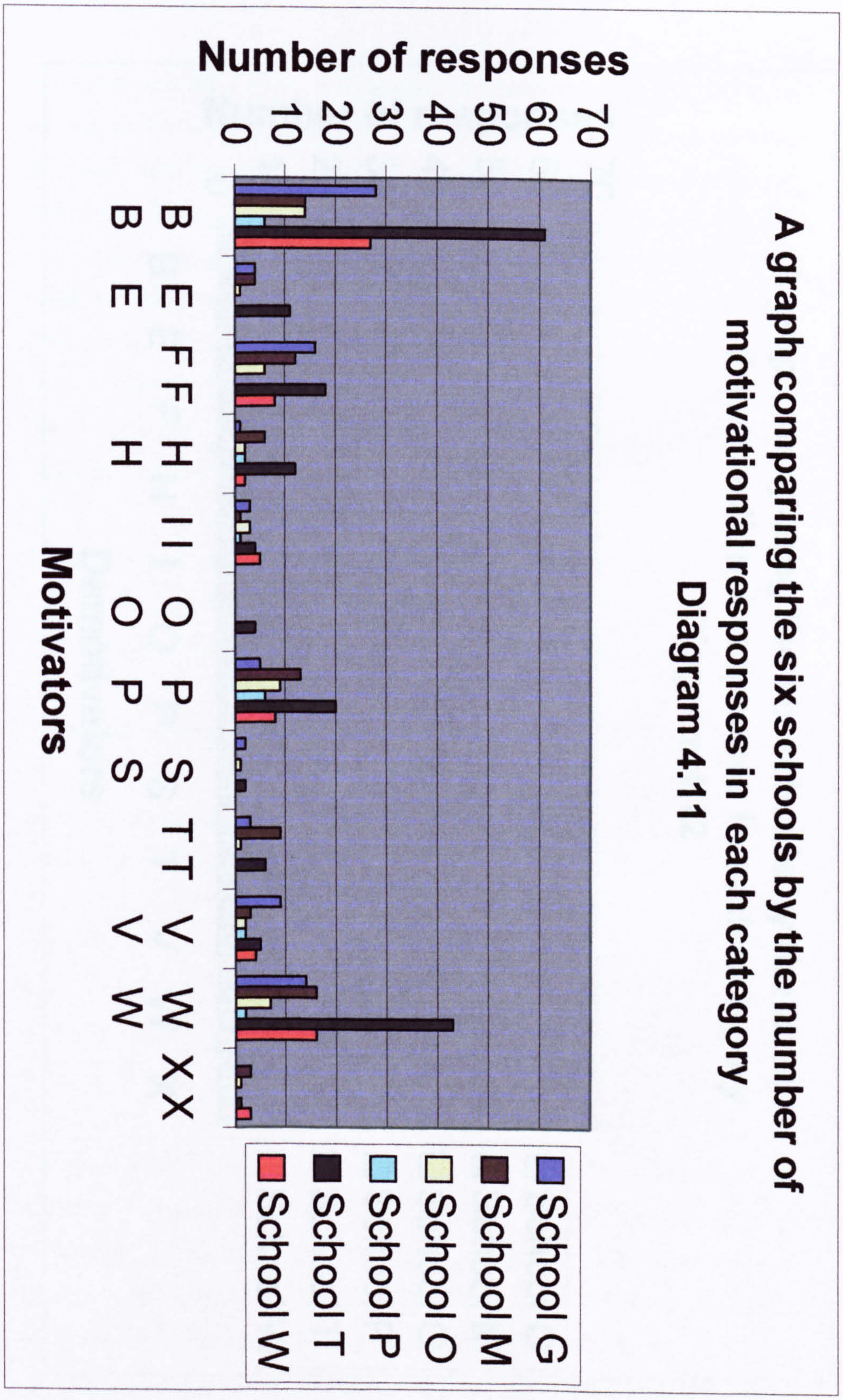

Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School P
Diagram 4.8
Perecentage of Responses
80
60
40
20
0
1
2
3
4
5
Start
End
Motivation Ratings


Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School T
Diagram 4.9
Percentage of responses
40
30
20
10
0
1
2
3
4
5
Start
End
Motivation Ratings


Motivational ratings at
the start and end of the day for School W
Diagram 4.10
Percentage of responses
50
40
30
20
10
0
1
2
3
4
5
Start
End
Motivation Ratings

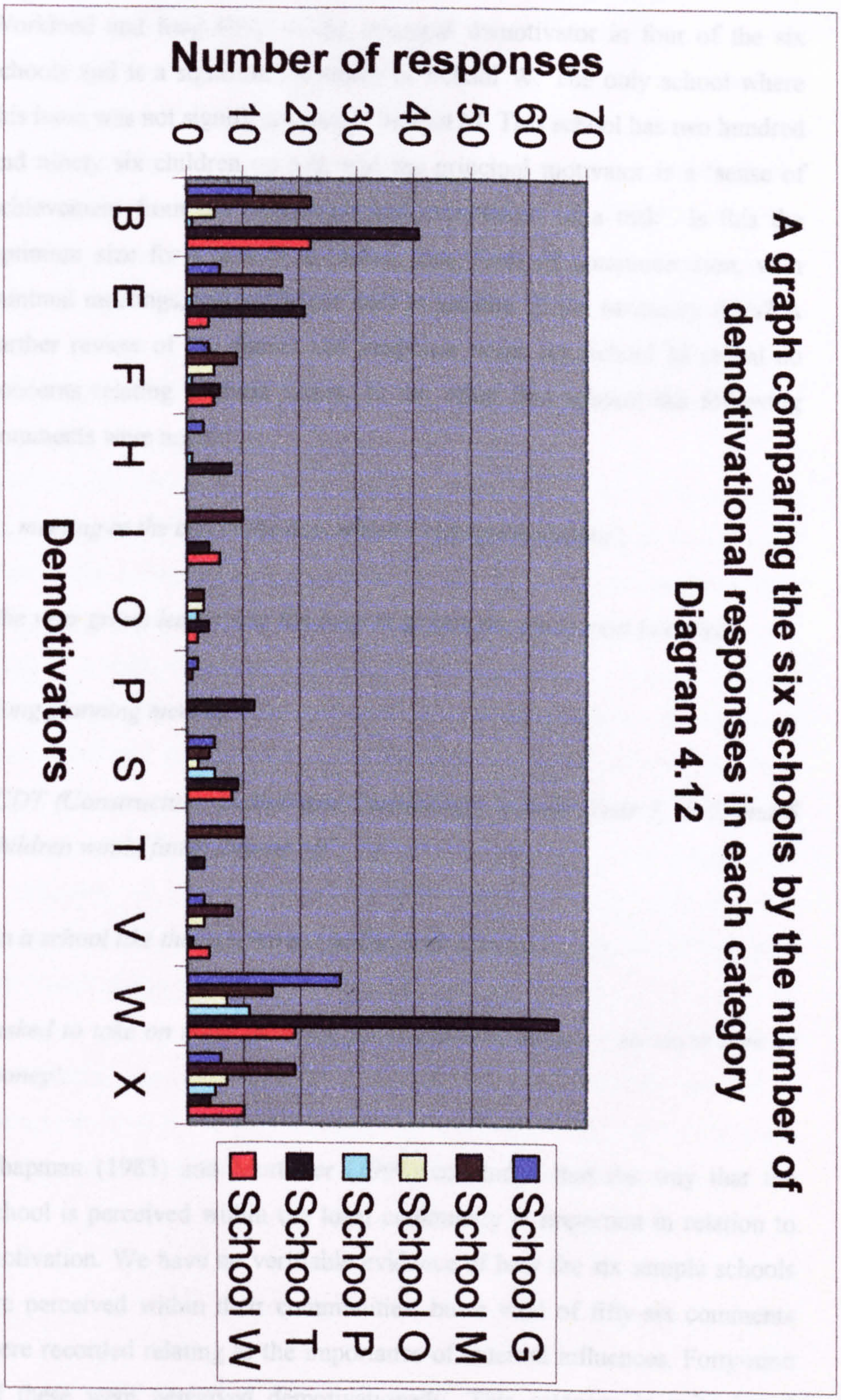
Although all of the schools in the sample were deemed by OFSTED at the last inspection to be well led and managed, it could be that more recent changes in senior management have had an impact, or that different motivators and demotivators have been identified in relation to the various strengths and weaknesses of the leaders in the various schools. In further consideration of the variations between the six schools involved in this study, (see Diagram 4.11), the principal motivator in four of the schools, G, O, T, and W is 'children who are well motivated, interested and well behaved', whereas in School M 'a sense of achievement in completing or undertaking a task' is the most significant and in School P it is the 'progress made by the children'. Demotivationally (see Table Diagram 4.12) four of the schools G, O, P and T, identified 'the long hours and heavy workload' as a significant factor, although in School O negative influences from external bodies was raised as an equal concern. Staff in Schools M and W highlighted concerns about the 'behaviour of the children' as the most significant demotivationally.

Is it possible to explain these motivational differences by the characteristics of the schools? Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990), Chapman & Hutcheson (1982) and Dinham & Scott (1998) concluded that the catchment area of the school is not an issue in relation to motivation, but this conflicted with the findings of Galloway *et al* (1982) and Mitchell & Peters (1988), who found the catchment area to be significant. The main characteristics of the six schools involved in this study are tabulated in Appendix 7.2. Schools M and W identified poor behaviour as the principal demotivator. Both schools are similar in size and admit children from a range of social and cultural backgrounds, although the Free School Meals indicator for School W is above average, suggesting that this catchment area is more deprived. Staff in School T, also a large school and which has the highest percentage of Free School Meals in the sample, also identified poor behaviour as a significant concern, albeit not their main concern. Staff in schools T, W and M however, all identified a positive response from the children as being a significant motivator. It might be concluded therefore, from the data collected in this study, that staff in large schools admitting children from deprived backgrounds are more likely to be demotivated by a poor response



A graph comparing the six schools by the number of motivational responses in each category

Diagram 4.11



A graph comparing the six schools by the number of demotivational responses in each category

Diagram 4.12

from the children, and equally are most motivated when the children respond positively.

Workload and long hours is the principal demotivator in four of the six schools and is a significant concern in School W. The only school where this issue was not significant was in School M. This school has two hundred and ninety six children on roll, and the principal motivator is a 'sense of achievement from the enjoyment and completion of a task'. Is this the optimum size for a school to ensure easy lines of communication, with minimal meetings, and sufficient staff to assume all the necessary roles? A further review of the diaries and interview notes for School M reveal no concerns relating to these issues. In the other five schools the following comments were noted:

'... meeting at the end of the day, which I'd forgotten about',

'the year group leader was too busy to get me the equipment I needed',

'long planning meeting',

'CDT (Construction, Design and Technology) with 33 Year 3, 4, 5, and 6 children would finish anyone off',

'in a school like this you have a multiplicity of roles',

'asked to take on more planning for a different subject – no extra time or money'.

Chapman (1983) and Mortimer (1998) concluded that the way that the school is perceived within the local community is important in relation to motivation. We have no verifiable evidence of how the six sample schools are perceived within their communities, but a total of fifty-six comments were recorded relating to the importance of external influences. Forty-nine of these were perceived demotivationally. This category is quite broad including comments about such things as OFSTED, LEA Inspectors and Department for Education and Skills initiatives, although, therefore, it does

not conclusively support Chapman (1983) and Mortimer (1998), the influence of external bodies on motivation in schools would seem undeniable. Staff in school M recorded the most comments, both motivationally and demotivationally, and principally the latter, in relation to external influences, and school O recorded the most comments motivationally. There was, however, no common theme to these remarks, for example they included reference to a visit by an LEA inspector, the Literacy and Numeracy strategies, and teachers being used as scapegoats by the media, but, interestingly, these two schools are the only church schools in the sample. Perhaps this is significant.

4.7 Section conclusion

However the schools are compared, there is clearly a complex and varied set of issues, and with such a small sample the possibility of making any meaningful generalizations was minimal. Is there an optimum size for a school in relation to teacher motivation? Any such question could form the basis of a piece of research itself. Perhaps the only trend is that children's behaviour in deprived areas appears to be a significant factor in relation to motivation and demotivation, and that staff in church schools are more prone to external pressures and opinions, than staff in other schools, but neither is conclusive. Is it that the differences between the schools are more a reflection of the quality of the effectiveness of the leadership and management of a school in relation to its demographic characteristics, than the impact of any particular demographic quality?

This section has considered each aspect of the initial research question in turn, in relation to the data that has been collected in this study. The main findings of this detailed analysis are summarized in the final section.

5.0 Conclusion and Implications

5.1 Overview of findings

The information gathered in this study indicates that the principal motivators for teachers in primary schools at the beginning of the 21st Century are positive responses from children, that is 'children being well motivated, interested or well behaved' and 'seeing them making progress', and staff experiencing a sense of achievement from 'a completed or enjoyable task' and from having 'supportive colleagues'. This reassuringly reflects the traditionally held view of why teachers teach, that is, because they want to work with children and to see them achieve. It is also confirmed by the findings of Nias (1981), prior to the 1988 Education Act: a catalyst for the many recent changes in the education system. Conversely the two principal demotivators are poor responses from children, that is, 'children behaving badly or showing a lack of interest' and having to 'work long hours with a heavy workload'. The latter confirms and adds to the recent findings of Woodward (2003); a cross phase educational study.

The view that the media and government lead us to believe: that teachers are motivated by pay, would appear not to hold true. This research suggests, however, that the government needs to provide strong support for the leaders of schools in managing the behaviour of children and, to a lesser degree, their parents. Support of this kind, could take a variety of forms: for example, helping to raise the profile of teachers and education in the media. As Woodward (2003) recently confirmed, 86 *per cent* of teachers believe the media gives them little or no respect. Supporting schools in managing disruptive behaviour and exclusions, and establishing clear regulations about the conduct of parents on school premises, would also undoubtedly be a welcome development. A recent challenge, reported in the media, to the right of teachers to refuse to teach disruptive pupils, is certainly not helpful (O'Kane, 2002) in this respect.

Some of the key issues facing schools today are; target setting, performance related pay and the quality of leadership, although none of these aspects has arisen specifically, as either a motivational or demotivational issue in the study being reported here. The general overriding view is that teachers are willing to manage and meet the challenge of change, but they must be given support and the time to do so effectively, by the leadership of the school, in order that their job satisfaction is not undermined. School leaders need to be given resources to support teachers in fulfilling their role effectively, thereby maximising job satisfaction. The guarantee of 10 *per cent* non-contact time for planning, preparation and assessment for all teachers recommended by the School Teachers Review Body (Miliband, 2002), is welcomed and this research would confirm this to be a sound strategy for the future recruitment, retention and motivation of teachers. As one of the respondents remarked at interview,

'Ten percent non-contact time would help'.

On a cautionary note, however, such an initiative needs to be adequately funded in order to ensure that the 'Higher Level Teaching Assistants' who are to facilitate this non-contact time (Department for Education and Skills, 2003); can be employed without schools being forced to make other cutbacks. Whether, or not, this strategy will provide a lasting solution to the workload pressures facing teachers, remains to be seen.

The findings of this study, generally confirmed by the conclusions of previous researchers in other sectors and prior to the implementation of the 1988 Education Act, are that the causes of dissatisfaction and satisfaction are independent, but not exclusively so. The principal example of the former being, that 'supportive colleagues' are found to be a significant source of motivation, but 'unsupportive colleagues' are not a significant source of demotivation, and similarly 'children making good progress' is a source of motivation, whereas 'children making little or not progress' was not found to be a significant source of demotivation. The same cannot be said, however, for children's behaviour and achievable workload, which are both significant motivational and demotivational factors. The importance of this for leaders in schools is that both teacher motivation and demotivation need

to some degree to be addressed separately. Optimum levels of staff motivation will not be achieved by addressing one, without the other. A comparison of the relative contributions of the motivational and demotivational factors illuminates this fact further. The analysis clearly suggests that at the beginning of the 21st Century, the latter has greater impact than the former, and as has been demonstrated, these findings are supported by Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943), an original and still quoted theory of motivation. Teachers are often told when managing children in the classroom, that there should be at least three positives for every negative comment: both the government and leaders of schools, therefore, need to follow this guide when managing teachers, if motivational impact is to exceed that of demotivation. In conclusion, this would suggest that although, school leaders need to address the sources of motivation and demotivation, it is the latter which needs to be paid the greatest attention.

This research strongly suggests that intrinsic motivation is an important issue for teachers, that is, 'positive responses from the children' and the sense of personal achievement that comes from 'a job well done', are key motivational issues. Conversely, however, extrinsic factors are important demotivationally. The data was reclassified using a third domain: school based factors, in light of the findings of the literature review about the problems of classification. This subsequent classification confirms the importance of intrinsic factors in relation to motivation, and extrinsic factors in relation to demotivation, but highlights the relative significant influence of 'school based factors' in relation to both teacher motivation and demotivation. The importance of this third dimension would be even greater, if workload were classified as a school based factor rather than merely a response to external pressures. This reclassification confirms the relevance and usefulness of a three dimensional analysis at the beginning of the 21st Century, as advocated by Friedlander (1963), Lortie, (1975) Ozcan (1996) and Dinham & Scott (1998), and the existence of the third domain also highlights the influence of school leadership. This suggests that, whilst there are many factors over which schools have little or no control, there is much that can be done by leaders, to minimise the negative impact and to maximize the positive influence of the challenges faced by schools today.

A review of the data collected in relation to the ethnographic characteristics of the sample indicates, at the 99 *per cent* significance level that: marital status; the age and number of children living at home; role within the school; the length of teaching experience; length of time in current school; qualifications; ethnicity and religion, are all contributory factors in the levels of motivation and demotivation of teachers, and at the 95 *per cent* significance level; that age is a factor in relation to motivational issues.

More specifically, teachers are motivated principally by 'well behaved, interested and motivated children', but in general become less well motivated by this aspect as they get older, when they are more likely to become demotivated by 'long hours and high workload'. This appears to be confirmed by the fact, that less senior teachers are the better motivated than those in middle management positions, but is contradicted to some extent by the fact that better qualified staff are likely to be the most motivated. In terms of ethnic background, teachers from the Mixed Race, White Other and Other categories appear to be the most motivated, and their principal motivator is likewise, ' well behaved, interested and motivated children'.

Men appear to be slightly less satisfied with the profession than women, and their principal demotivator is 'children who are badly behaved or disinterested'. Similarly teachers who have 11 – 20 total years of service and 11 – 20 years in their current school are the ones that are most likely to become demotivated; their principal demotivator being 'workload and long hours'.

In terms of religious background, Islamic teachers and those having no religion would appear to be more prone to demotivation, than their colleagues. The principal demotivators for these ethnographic groupings are 'workload' and 'poorly behaved or disinterested children'.

Single teachers and those without children to care for at home appear more likely to be demotivated by 'workload and long hours' than their colleagues.

Conversely, there are some indications that teachers who have undertaken accredited in-service study may be less prone to the demotivation from workload and long hours. Perhaps demotivationally, workload is less of an issue for teachers who are used to managing a wide range of other priorities, for example, part-time study or, caring for children or a partner. Possibly these findings can also be supported by the fact that teachers who have husbands, partners or children that rely upon them, and from whom they also derive pleasure and support, have less time or inclination to be swayed by the challenges they face at work. There is of course the question of the nature and the longevity of these family relationships, but this was beyond the scope of the study.

The ethnographic characteristics of the sample have been explored in considerable detail. Generally the motivators and demotivators of the various groups have been found to be similar, that is 'well behaved, motivated and interested children', in relation to the former, and 'workload' and 'poorly behaved and disinterested children' in relation to the latter. There is a notable similarity between teachers with partners, husbands or children, that is, dependents outside school, and those with a religious conviction. However, although there are similarities there are also variations. This clearly suggests that leaders of schools need to be aware of, and responsive to, the individual needs of their staff, and understand that these needs may change, if circumstances outside school change. A leader must really know their staff and what 'makes them tick'. Attempts must be made to identify and meet the needs of individual teachers, for example, by matching types of teachers with appropriate roles and assignments, but perhaps also the implications for headteachers at the beginning of the 21st Century are even wider. Steps should be taken at the recruitment stage to identify individual motivational aspirations, mindful of Equal Opportunities legislation, and to match these to the needs of the school. Although possibly the latter is more desirable than practicable, particularly in light of the current crisis in teacher recruitment and retention.

The findings in relation to ethnographic influences add to, and update, the ongoing debate that, as the Literature Review confirms, has generated a range of contradictions. Examples include; findings related to gender by

Dilworth (1991) that contradict those of Maehr & Braeskamp (1986), and findings related to race generated by McClelland (1996) that contradict those of Chapman & Hutcheson (1983).

Finally, the data collected from the six different schools in the sample was carefully analysed to determine whether there were any indications that the demographics of a school influences teacher motivation. The schools divided equally into two groups: those where the staff appeared generally motivated and those where they appeared demotivated. In terms of the general characteristics of those schools however, it was not possible to find any common explanation for these findings.

A closer look at the issues found to be motivational and demotivational by the staff in those schools was more revealing. It was generally found that large schools admitting children from deprived backgrounds are more likely to be demotivated by a poor response from the children, and equally are most likely to be motivated when the children respond positively. Workload and long hours are a significant concern in five of the six schools, and the principal demotivator in four of these schools. The only school where this issue is not significant was a one and a half form entry suburban primary school with a nursery and average free school meals. The principal motivator in this school is the sense of achievement that comes from the enjoyment and completion of a task. This school, however, recorded the highest number of responses in relation to external influences, both motivationally and demotivationally and more significantly the latter, but no common issue emerged in relation to these concerns. The other school that yielded a high number of responses on the issue of external influences was also a church school, although these were principally motivational.

It is suggested therefore, that the differences between the schools are more a reflection of the quality of the effectiveness of the leadership and management of a school in relation to its various demographic characteristics, than the impact of any particular demographic quality. This being something that, up to now, the analysis had not identified specifically. It could be argued for example, that the management of the five schools in which workload is a concern, are not effective in managing priorities, or

managing resources, such as time and support staff, to enable teachers to fulfil their roles effectively, and likewise the schools where behaviour issues and external pressures are of concern to staff. In order to do this the leaders of schools need the unequivocal support of the government.

Despite the limited nature of the findings in relation to the demographics of the sample, they add to existing research, in an area that is to date, sporadic and contradictory, for example, the contradictory findings of Dinham & Scott (1998) and Rowan *et al* (1991) in relation to the impact of the socio-economic status of a school's catchment area. However the schools in the sample are compared, there is clearly a complex and varied set of issues, and with such a small sample the possibility of making any meaningful generalizations was minimal. Is there an optimum size for a school in relation to teacher motivation? Any such question could form the basis of a piece of research itself. The only general trends are that children's behaviour in deprived areas appears to be a significant factor in relation to motivation and demotivation, and that staff in church schools are more prone to external pressures and opinions than staff in other schools, but neither is conclusive.

5.2 The limitations of the study

It is acknowledged that the findings of the study being reported here have their limitations and must be interpreted with care. The data was, of necessity, gathered over a series of weeks, at different times in the year and, for accessibility purposes, at times that were convenient to the sample schools. The findings may well have been different if the data had been collected all at the same time, or in the week before Christmas, during an OFSTED or during the Key Stage 2 Test Week.

All of the schools selected for participation agreed to take part and, therefore, availability sampling was not necessary. However, in agreeing which staff were to be interviewed, a cross-section was aimed for, but not always achieved. These samples were more self-selected by teachers expressing an interest or willingness to participate. Headteachers tried, however, to ensure a cross-section of staff whenever possible. Funding for

the research was limited, and consequently it was not possible to release the teachers from existing duties, unless by the goodwill of the school. Four of the schools released the teachers from class, to participate in the interview, but in the other two the interviews were conducted with staff willing to give up their own time after school. It is conceivable that the data may have been different if all the teachers had taken part during school time, and had been selected solely by the researcher to provide a representative cross-section.

Irrespective of how the sample was chosen, the number of schools and teachers involved is relatively small. Statistically some of these findings have, however, very recently been confirmed by a much more extensive, although much less in depth, study conducted by Mori with over seventy thousand teachers (Woodward, 2003).

Other limitations to be acknowledged are those relating to the axiological considerations of a study conducted by a single researcher: the researcher having been a headteacher for thirteen years. The shortcomings of the methodologies chosen have been discussed in detail above, along with the possible introduction of errors in categorisation and analysis. All research is prone to a degree of subjectivity and measures have been taken to keep this to a minimum. The researcher has been open about the procedures used, thereby enabling future readers to make their own interpretation.

5.3 Implications

What then are the implications of the above study, notwithstanding these limitations? It is clear that the government needs to provide strong support for the leaders of schools in managing the behaviour of children and, to a lesser degree, the behaviour of parents. This support could take a variety of forms: for example, helping to raise the profile of teachers and education in the media, strengthening the law on exclusions and establishing clear regulations about the behaviour of all adults on school premises.

Schools also need to be given resources to support teachers in fulfilling their role effectively. Schools need additional funds, not for enhanced salaries but to employ assistants for teachers and to provide non-contact time.

Locally, however, at school level, leaders of schools need to be aware of the necessity to address the sources of motivation and demotivation separately, with a greater emphasis on the latter, in order to minimize the negative impact of demotivational factors and to maximise the positive influence of those that are motivational. The sources clearly vary from school to school, and therefore an internal audit needs to be carried out on a regular basis to determine the issues. The leaders of schools need to be sensitive to the innate motivational tendencies of candidates upon appointment and how they relate to the needs of the school, although during a time of teacher shortages, it is recognised that this may be difficult. Additionally, senior management in schools, whilst mindful of equity, need to be aware of, and responsive to, the individual motivational needs of their staff, and recognise that these may change as their circumstances outside school evolve.

5.4 Possibilities for further research

As with most other research, this project raises more questions than it answers. No research can ever be conclusive because of limitations, such as those identified above, and therefore there will always be questions, for example, what would have happened if this project had been undertaken in all schools during a single week at the end of a term? – or what would the findings have been if there were twenty schools in the sample? Alongside this, however, a range of new possibilities for further research also became apparent as the analysis was undertaken. Some examples are outlined below.

Why is it that teachers with children to care for at home seem generally better motivated as primary school teachers? With more demands on their time it might be argued that they would have less energy and less time to devote to their role as a teacher. Perhaps linked to the answer for this question, is the answer to another: Why are single teachers more likely to be demotivated by workload and long hours?

What is the optimum size for a school in relation to workload management, and therefore the motivation and demotivation of teachers in schools?

The analysis revealed contradictory findings in relation to the length of teaching experience and the length of time in the current school, and their relationship to motivation and demotivation. This also needs further investigation.

Tentative conclusions were drawn with respect to the relationship between religion and ethnicity, and the motivation and demotivation of teachers. The literature review revealed that the research in this area is almost non-existent and this too requires more extensive exploration.

The subject of the motivation and demotivation of teachers is an under-researched field of study in this country and there is still a lot to be discovered and confirmed, which undoubtedly would be beneficial in the constant drive to raise standards faced by schools.

5.5 Final summary of findings in relation to the initial research questions

The principal sources of motivation for teachers are children being well motivated, interested or well behaved, and staff experiencing a sense of achievement, from a completed or enjoyable task. The principal sources of demotivation are the long hours and heavy workload associated with the role of a teacher, and children behaving badly or showing a lack of interest in their work.

A closer look at the sources of motivation revealed that intrinsic motivators are the main source of teacher motivation, whilst extrinsic motivators are the main source of teacher demotivation. This study also confirmed the existence of a third category of factors, that is 'school based factors', which are directly under the influence of the school leadership, and in themselves are an important source of both motivation and demotivation. Whilst sources of motivation and demotivation were found to be linked, in order to achieve an optimally motivated workforce, the leaders of schools need to consciously manage them separately. A greater emphasis, however, needs to be placed on the latter, as the findings would suggest that individual

demotivators potentially have a greater impact on a teacher's motivational state, than any single individual source of motivation.

Demographically and ethnographically there are differences between the schools and their staff in terms of both motivation and demotivation, but no patterns emerged that were found to be overwhelmingly significant. The main conclusion was that the differences arose related to the strengths and weakness in the leadership and management of the schools themselves and that, although there are many decisions over which a school has no control, much can be done locally to manage the motivational and demotivational impact of the challenges facing schools at the beginning of the 21st Century. School leaders need to be aware of how the individual needs of their staff vary, and how they may change as their circumstances outside school change, and as an individual progresses through their career. On a wider scale, the government needs to provide support nationally in the management of behaviour issues, potentially a source of both motivation and demotivation for teachers and to ensure that schools have the resources to manage their workforce effectively, thereby helping to reduce the impact of workload.

6.0 References

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7.0 Appendices

Appendix 7.1
Research Map

METHODOLOGY	Initial Questionnaire									Motivation Diary			Interview Schedule														Purposive Sampling	Document Analysis
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Q 5	Q 6 (a)	Q 6 (b)	Q 7	Q 8	Scale at Start /end of day	Motivational Incidents	Demotivational Incidents	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Q 5	Q 6	Q 7	Q 8	Q 9	Q 10	Q 11	Q 12	Q 13	Q 14	Q 15	Q 16		
What motivates teachers?										■	■		■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■				■	■		■	■
What demotivates teachers?										■		■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■			■		■	■		■	■
Impact of gender	■									■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of marital status		■								■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of children living at home			■							■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of position in school				■						■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of teaching qualifications					■					■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of length of teaching experience						■				■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of time within current school							■			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of religion								■		■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of ethnic origin									■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■			
Impact of local characteristics of school										■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■				■	■		■	■
Are intrinsic rewards more effective than extrinsic rewards?										■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■			
For validation purposes																				■								■		

Appendix 7.2

Characteristics of Schools in Sample

School	W	G	T	O	M	P
Age Range	7 - 11	5 - 11	5 - 11	5 -11	3 - 11	5 - 7
NOR	356	215	596	42	296 inc 26 nursery	180
Catchment Area	Suburban, mainly social housing	Suburban owner occupied housing	Suburban, a mix of owner occupied and social housing	Rural, generally considered advantaged	From a range of social, economic, cultural and racial backgrounds	A wide range of social and cultural backgrounds
Free School Meals	38%	4.7%	40%	0%	Aveerage	Average
SEN	33%	28%	20%	14%	16%	Average
EAL	20%	6%	33%	0%	17%	Above average
Number of Teachers	13	9.3	26.5	3.2	11.1	6
Other characteristics	3 F.E. Junior EAZ	1 F.E. Primary	3 F.E. Primary	2 class Primary	1.5 F.E primary with Nursery	2 F.E Infant
Leadership & management	Very good	Very good	Good overall	Very good	Very well led & managed	Strong & positive
Date of last OFSTED	17/09/01	18/10/01	19/01/98	27/09/99	11/09/00	16/03/98

Appendix 7.3

X XXXXXX XXXXXXX
XXXX XXXXXXX
XXXX
XXX XXX
1st December 2001
Tel: XXX XXXX

Dear Mr Xxxxxx,

Re: Teacher Motivation Study

Thank you for agreeing to consider taking part in the above project as discussed on the telephone yesterday.

Please find enclosed draft copies of the Initial Questionnaire and Daily Log as discussed. These would need to be completed for a week during the Spring Term 2002.

This initial data collection would be followed at a mutually convenient time, by meetings, between myself and a cross-section of staff to discuss this issue in more depth, e.g MPS, M1, M2 (one from each category) and your Deputy Head. These could be undertaken face-to-face or by telephone, and would each last approximately thirty minutes.

I am undertaking this research in association with the Open University as part of a Doctorate in Education. Xxxx Xxxx Xxxxxx School would be one of six schools each with different characteristics taking part in an in-depth study.

The other five are as follows

A two form entry junior school in a deprived suburban area

A one and a half form entry church school

A large multicultural primary

A one-form entry primary school in a middle-class area

A rural primary school with only two classes

As we are all aware, many millions of pounds have been spent by the DfES on raising standards but no initiative can truly be effective unless teachers are sufficiently motivated. My research poses the question 'What motivates and demotivates teachers in Primary Schools at the beginning of the 21st Century?' A search of relevant literature suggests that the research in this area is limited; much of it has been undertaken in the U.S.A, is not limited to primary schools or is in need of updating.

The staff and the school can be assured of absolute confidentiality. When the data collection is complete I would, of course, provide the school with a summary of the findings, in which all references would be totally anonymous. It is anticipated that the information generated will be useful to your school and contribute to the wider debate on this issue.

I will contact you as agreed in a two weeks time, when you have had chance to discuss the project with your staff, but meanwhile if you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to give me a ring.

Yours faithfully

Rosemary Addison

Xxxxxx xxxxx xxxxxxx

Xxxxxxxx xxxx

Xxxxxxxxxx

Xxxxxx

23rd January 2002

Dear Xxxxxxxxxxxxx,

Re: Research into Teacher Motivation

Please find enclosed brief questionnaires and diary sheets as agreed, for completion next week. It would be appreciated if you could return the completed forms to me as soon as possible afterwards, in the stamp-addressed envelope provided. I will then give you a ring to arrange some interviews with a cross-section of staff to discuss this issue in more detail.

The tin of biscuits is enclosed, as an initial 'Thank You' to your staff for taking part. Don't hesitate to give me a ring if you have any questions.

Thank you again for your help.

Rosemary Addison

Xxxxx xxxxx xxxxxxx

Xxxxxxx xxxx

Xxxxxxxxxx

Xxxxxx

28th April 2002

Dear Xxxxxxxxxxxx,

Re: Research into Teacher Motivation

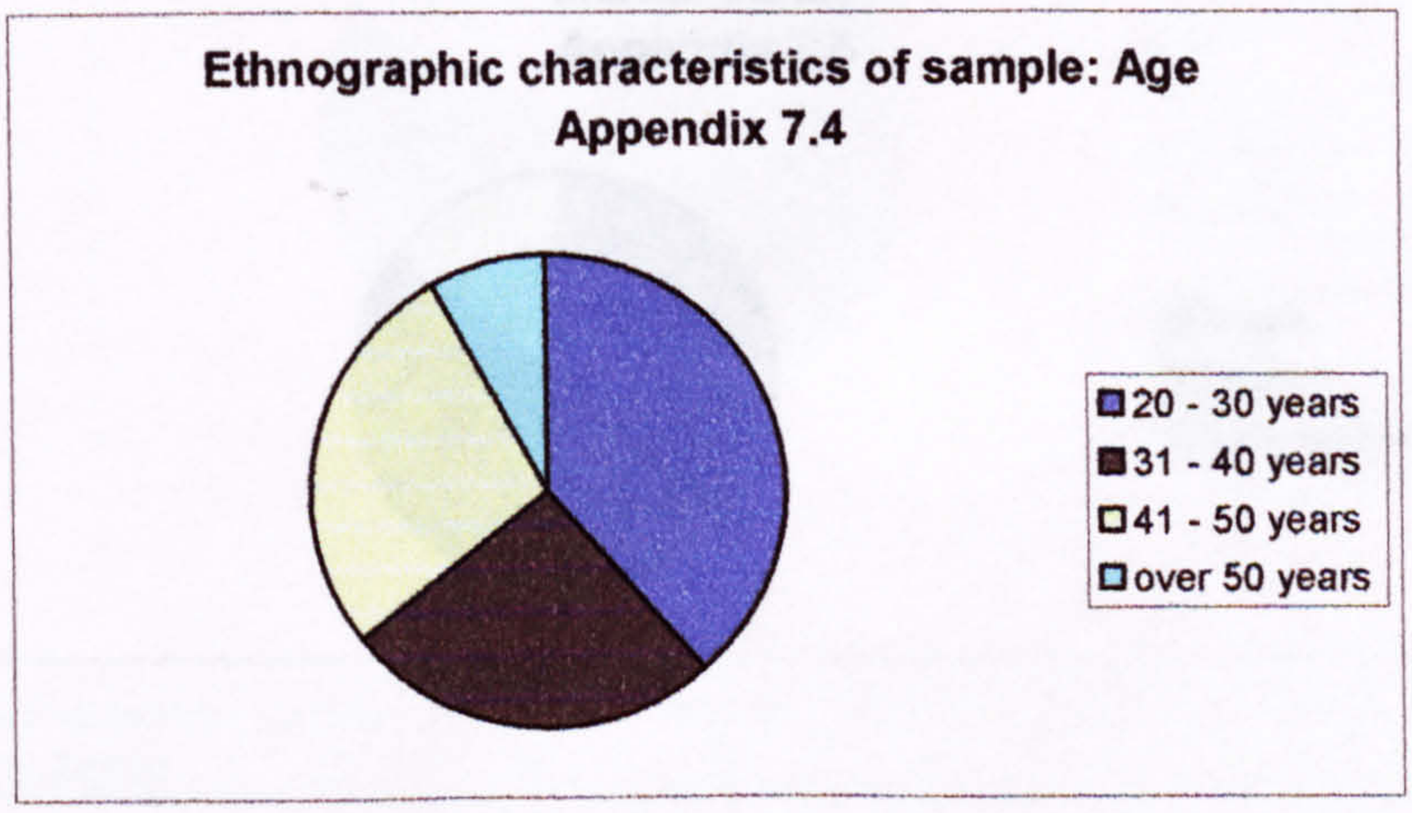
Thank you for arranging for me to meet with three of your teachers, to discuss the above issue in more detail. I have now transcribed the notes that were taken and sent a copy for proof reading to each of the staff concerned.

I will ensure that you and your staff get a summary of the findings, but they will not be in a presentable stat until after the summer break!

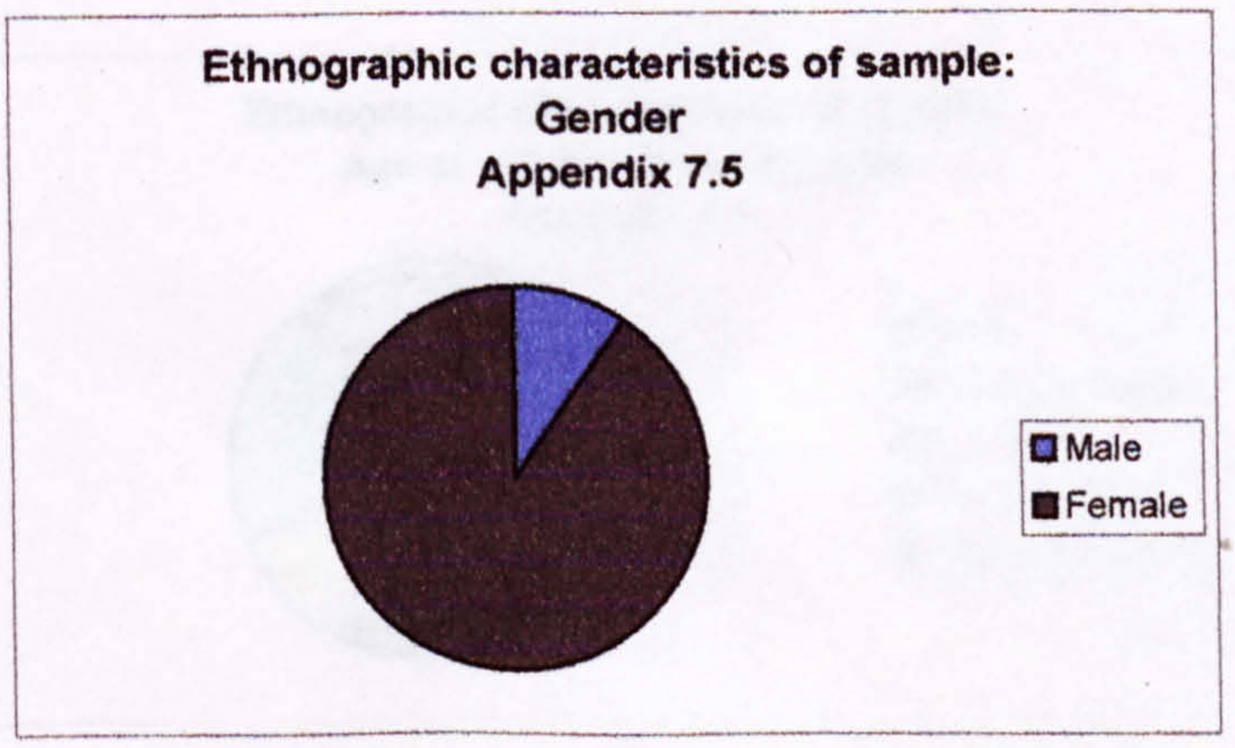
Thank you again and have a good summer term.

Rosemary Addison

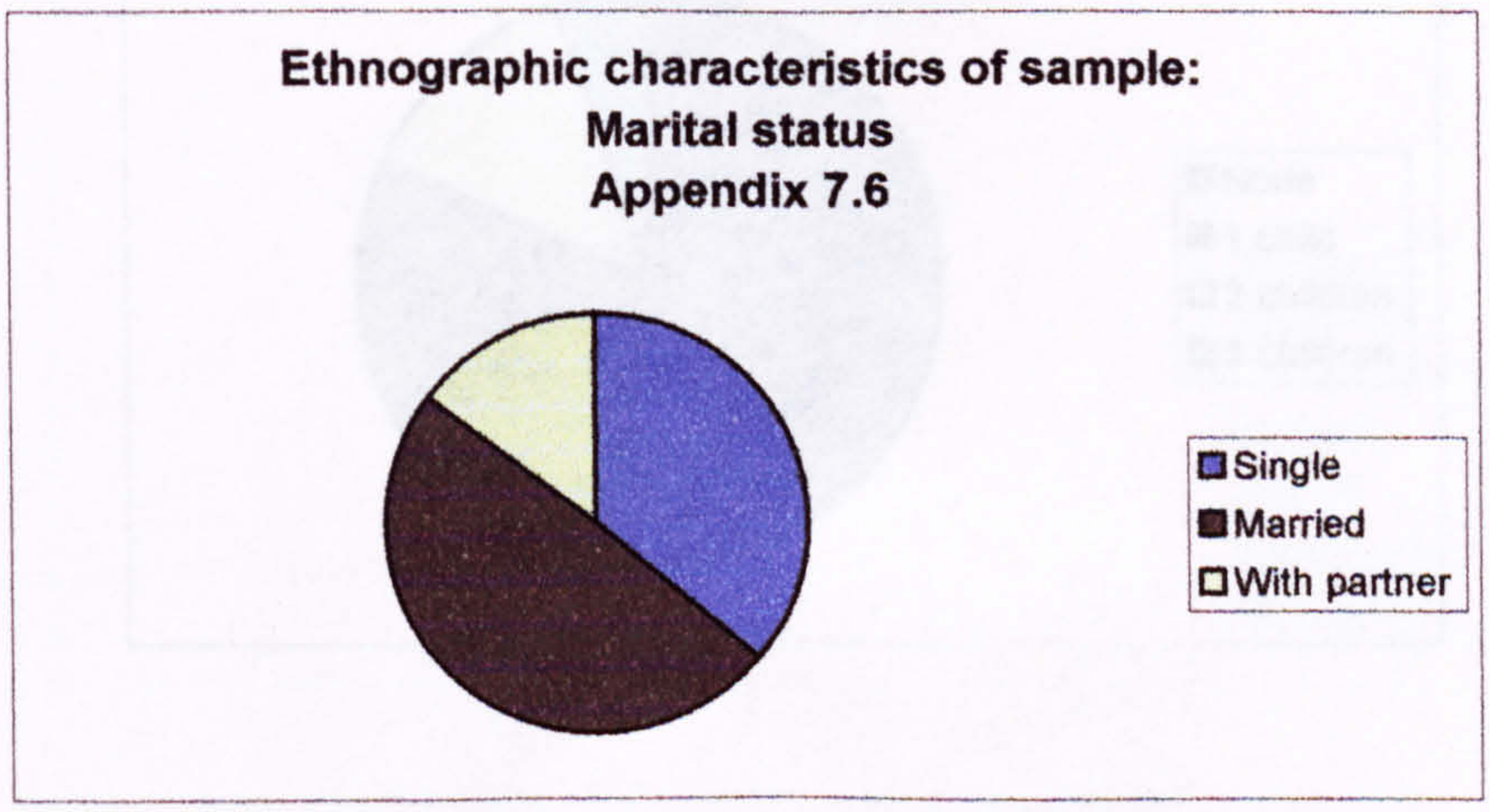
Ethnographical Statistical Summary



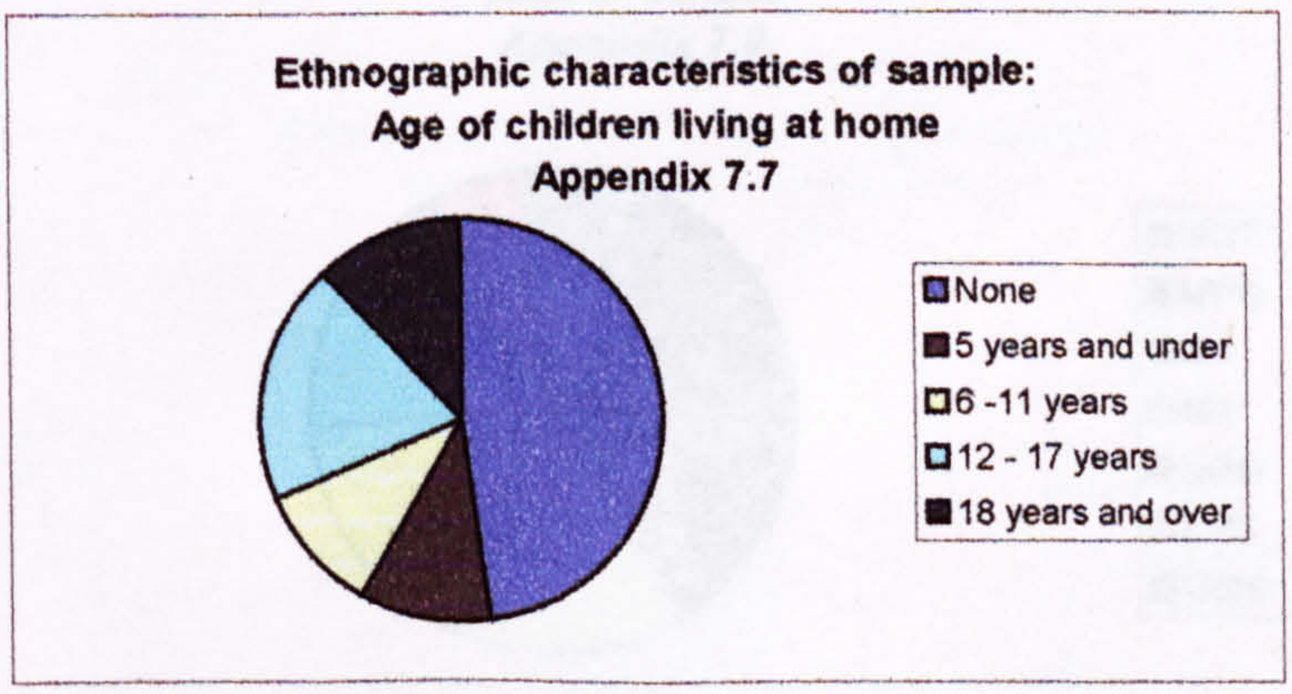
Age	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
20 -30 years	5	2	1	2	8	6	24
31 - 40 years	1	3	1	0	8	3	16
41 - 50 years	3	5	1	0	5	3	17
Over 50 years	0	0	1	0	3	1	5
Total	9	10	4	2	24	13	62



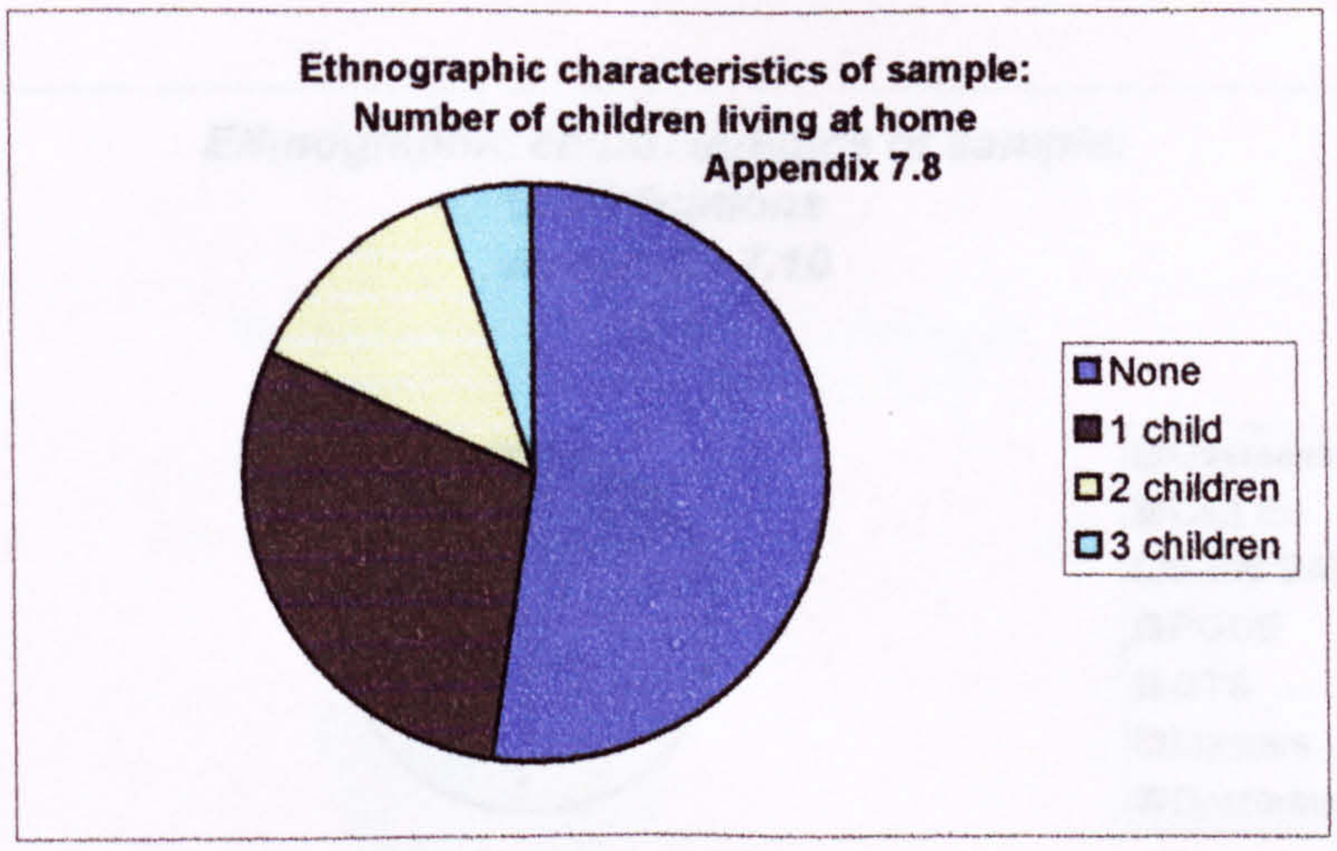
Gender	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
Male	1	0	0	0	3	2	6
Female	8	10	4	2	21	11	56
Total	9	10	4	2	24	13	62



Marital Status	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
Single	4	3	1	0	8	6	22
Married	4	5	0	1	14	6	30
With partner	1	1	3	1	2	1	9
	9	9	4	2	24	13	61

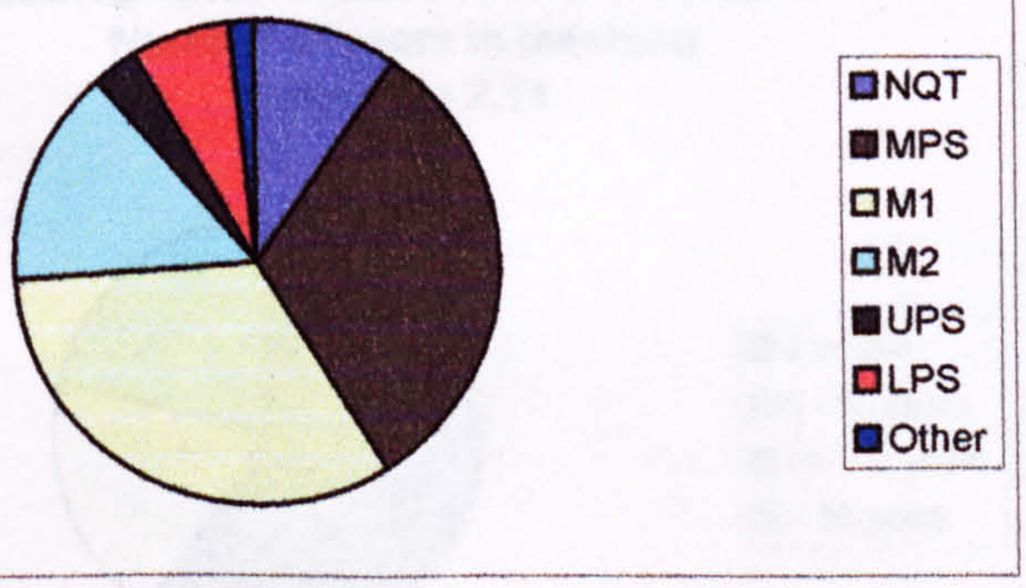


Age of children living at home	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
None	5	1	2	2	10	10	30
5 years and under	1	1	0	0	4	0	6
Between 5 and 12 years	2	2	1	0	2	0	7
Between 12 and 18 years	1	3	1	0	4	2	11
18 years and over	0	3	0	0	4	1	8
Total	9	10	4	2	24	13	62

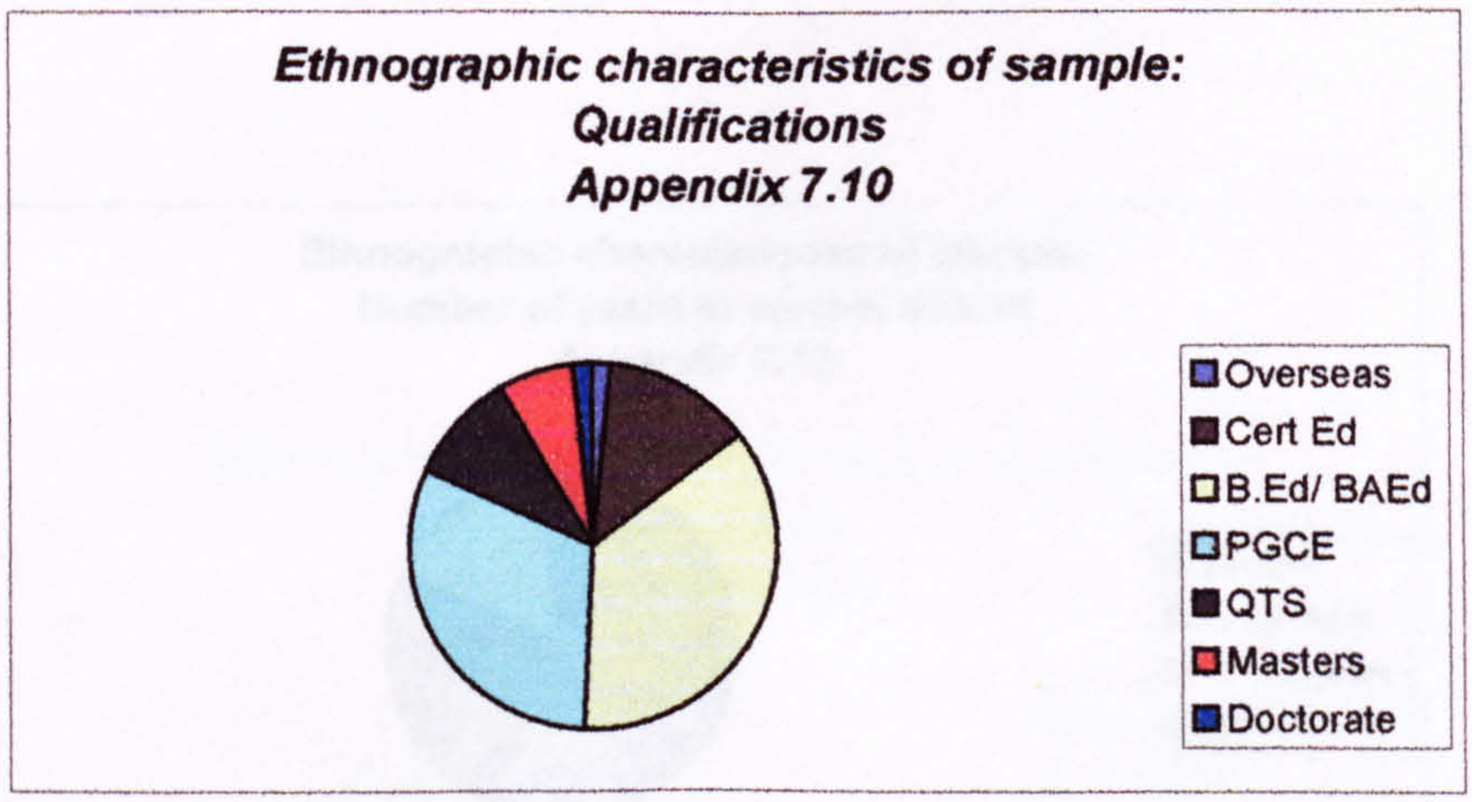


Number of children living at home	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
None	5	3	2	2	11	10	33
1	2	7	0	0	7	2	18
2	2	0	2	0	3	1	8
3	0	0	0	0	3	0	3
Total	9	10	4	2	24	13	62

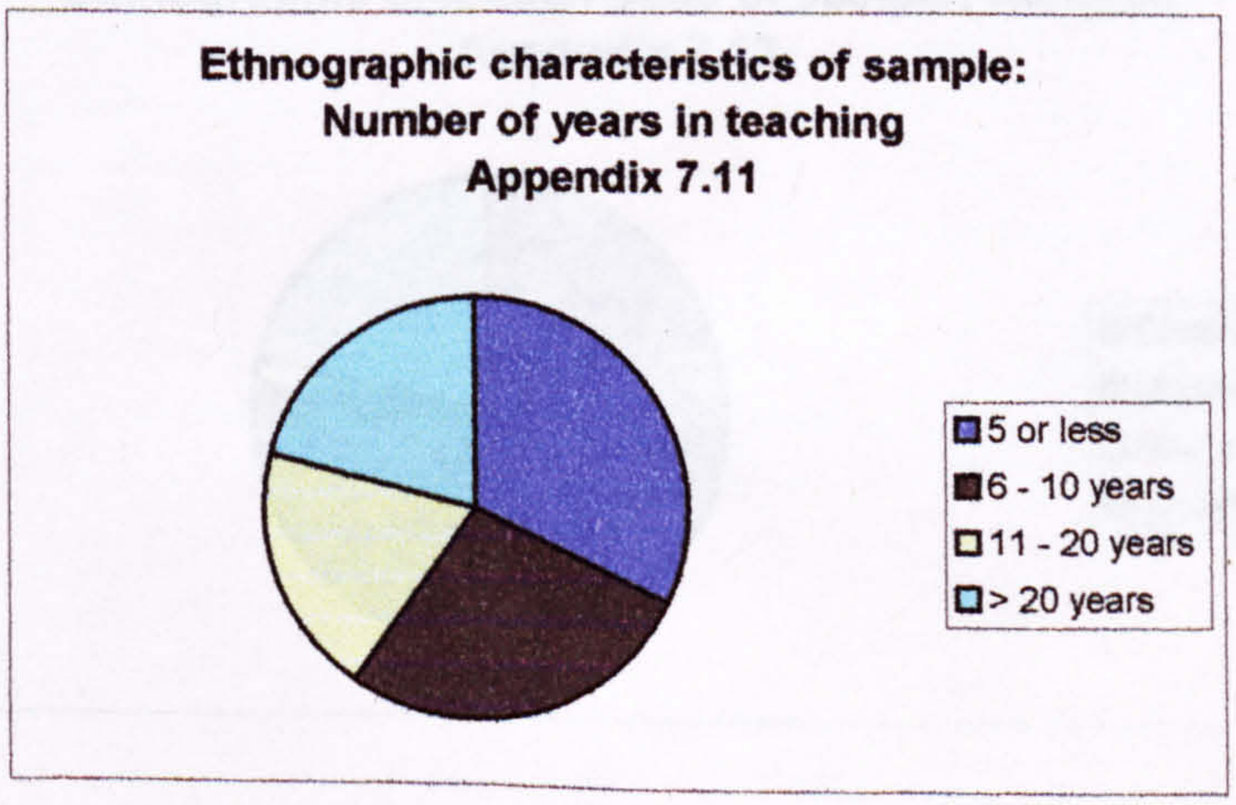
Ethnographic characteristics of sample:
Role in school
Appendix 7.9



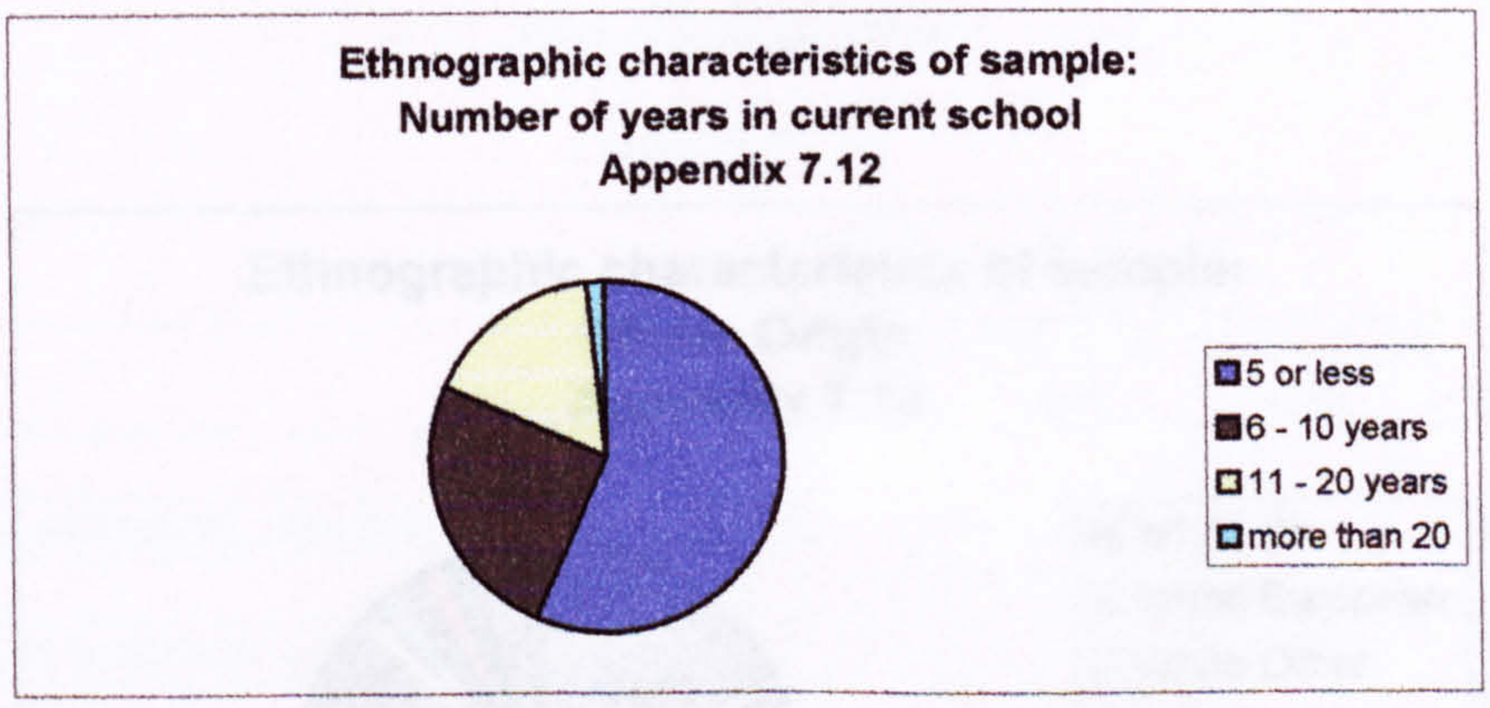
Role in School	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
NQT	1	0	0	0	3	2	6
TPS	2	1	4	1	7	4	19
M1	5	5	0	0	5	5	20
M2	0	3	0	1	5	0	9
LPS	0	1	0	0	2	1	4
UPS	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
Consultant	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	9	10	4	2	23	13	61



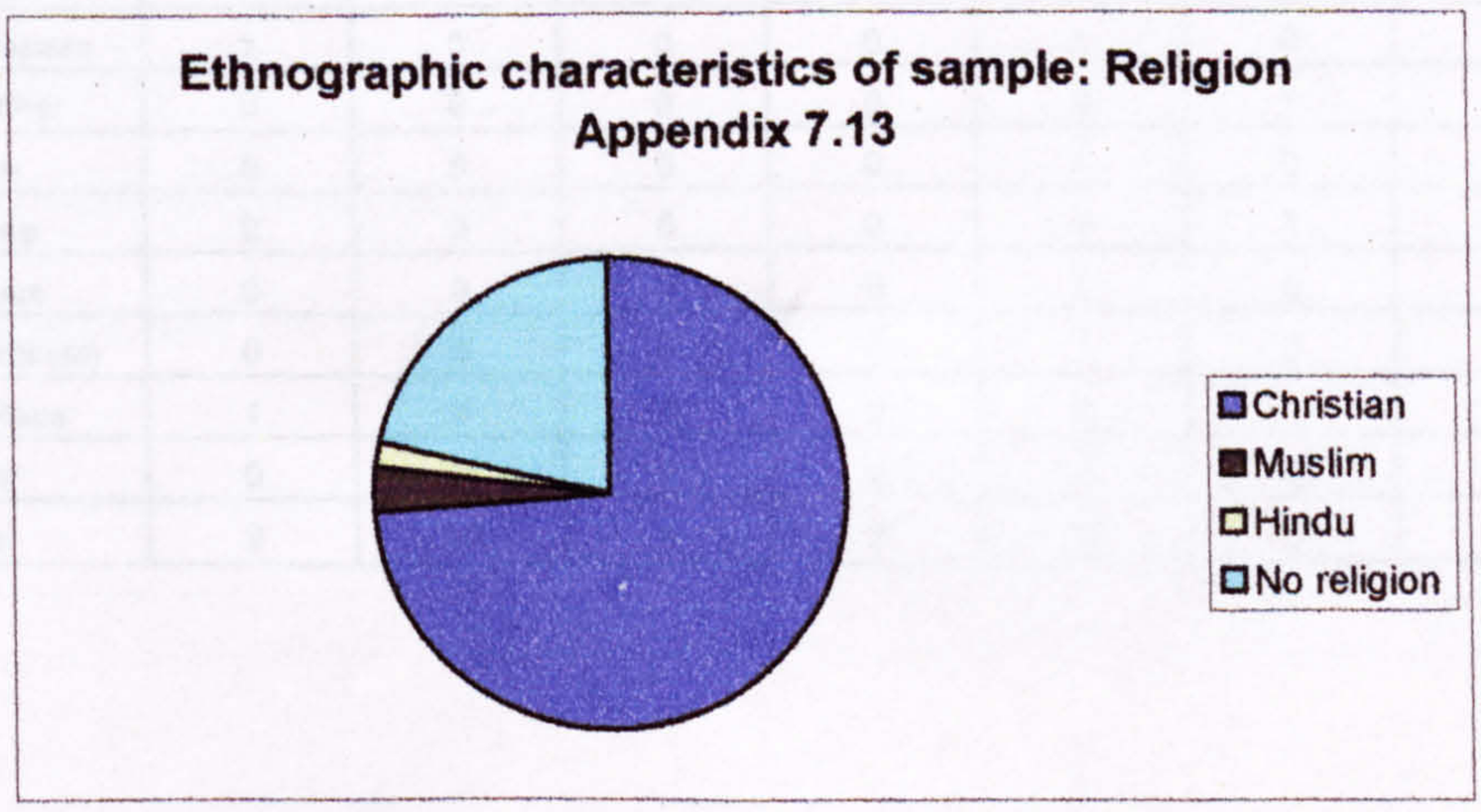
Qualifications	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
Overseas Trained	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Cert Ed	2	2	0	0	3	1	8
B.Ed/ BAEd	1	4	3	0	8	6	22
PGCE	3	3	1	1	10	1	19
QTS	2	1	0	1	0	2	6
Masters	0	0	0	0	2	2	4
Doctorate	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	8	10	4	2	24	13	61



Number of years in teaching	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
5 or less	4	1	1	2	6	6	20
6 - 10	2	2	1	0	8	4	17
11 - 20	1	6	1	0	3	1	12
> 20 years	2	1	1	0	7	2	13
Total	9	10	4	2	24	13	62

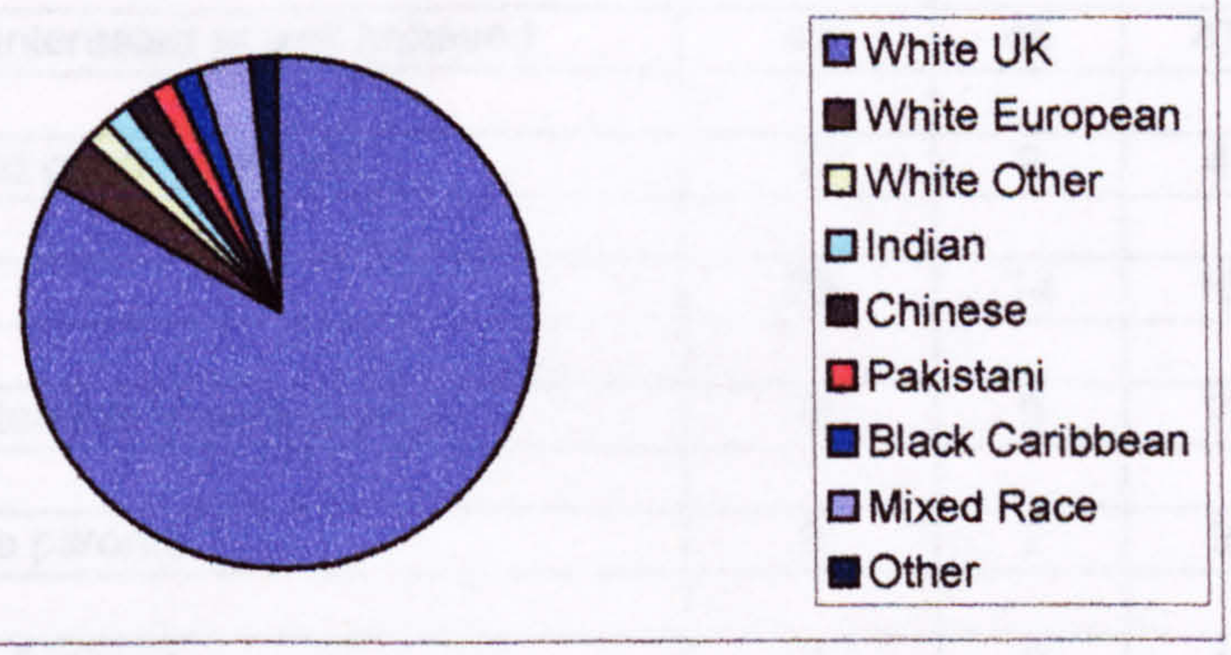


Number of years in current school	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
5 or less	8	3	3	2	11	7	34
6 – 10 years	1	2	0	0	8	4	15
11 – 20 years	0	5	1	0	2	2	10
> 20 years	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	9	10	4	2	22	13	60



Religion	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
Christian	5	10	4	0	17	9	45
Muslim	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Hindu	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
No religion	4	0	0	2	4	3	13
Total	9	10	4	2	23	13	61

Ethnographic characteristics of sample:
Ethnic Origin
Appendix 7.14



Ethnic Origin	School G	School M	School O	School P	School T	School W	Total
White UK	7	10	4	2	17	10	50
White European	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
White Other	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Indian	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Chinese	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Pakistani	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Black Caribbean	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Mixed Race	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Other	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	9	10	4	2	22	13	60

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with age

Appendix 7 .15.

	20 – 30 years	31 – 40 years	41 – 50 years	Over 50 years
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	49	45	47	11
Environmental factors and good resources	7	9	4	0
Supportive colleagues	26	14	16	7
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	8	9	7	0
Interested and supportive parents	6	2	3	2
Positive organisational influences	2	0	1	1
Children making good progress	26	14	13	7
Good salary or remuneration	3	0	2	0
Good training opportunities	4	7	8	1
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	18	10	2	1
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	30	33	26	8
Positive influences from external bodies	2	3	1	1
Total	181	146	130	39

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with age

Appendix 7.16

	20 – 30 years	31 – 40 years	41 – 50 years	Over 50 years
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	39	29	33	3
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	17	13	18	1
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	7	9	10	3
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	4	3	1	3
Lack of interest or support from parents	10	3	6	0
Negative organisational influences	7	2	4	1
Children making little or no progress	7	4	4	1
Poor salary or remuneration	13	10	5	2
Inadequate training opportunities	2	3	6	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	7	5	6	1
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	68	37	27	19
Negative influences from external bodies	11	14	18	6
Total	192	132	138	40

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with marital status

Appendix 7 .17.

	Married or with partner	single
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	84	68
Environmental factors and good resources	13	7
Supportive colleagues	35	28
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	18	6
Interested and supportive parents	8	5
Positive organisational influences	2	2
Children making good progress	39	21
Good salary or remuneration	1	4
Good training opportunities	12	8
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	18	13
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	67	30
Positive influences from external bodies	2	5
Total	299	197

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with marital status

Appendix 7.18

	Married or with partner	single
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	49	55
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	24	25
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	11	18
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	9	2
Lack of interest or support from parents	8	11
Negative organisational influences	7	7
Children making little or no progress	10	6
Poor salary or remuneration	13	17
Inadequate training opportunities	5	6
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	9	10
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	81	70
Negative influences from external bodies	30	19
Total	256	246

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Age of children living at home'

Appendix 7 .19.

	None	5 years and under	6 – 11 years	12 – 17 years	18 years and over
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	92	10	11	27	12
Environmental factors and good resources	15	2	0	3	0
Supportive colleagues	40	7	3	9	4
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	15	5	0	4	0
Interested and supportive parents	10	0	0	1	2
Positive organisational influences	3	0	0	1	0
Children making good progress	39	3	6	10	2
Good salary or remuneration	5	0	0	0	0
Good training opportunities	7	4	2	6	1
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	25	2	1	2	1
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	59	20	3	11	4
Positive influences from external bodies	4	0	1	2	0
Total	314	53	27	76	26

Table displaying demotivational response categories cross-tabulated with 'Age of children living at home'

Appendix 7.20

	None	5 years and under	6 – 11 years	12 – 17 years	18 years and over
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	60	6	6	28	4
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	27	4	4	10	4
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	16	3	0	10	0
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	4	4	1	0	2
Lack of interest or support from parents	12	1	1	2	3
Negative organisational influences	10	1	0	2	1
Children making little or no progress	9	1	3	2	1
Poor salary or remuneration	22	2	2	2	2
Inadequate training opportunities	4	1	1	3	2
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	15	0	3	0	1
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	107	21	9	5	9
Negative influences from external bodies	32	1	4	6	6
Total	318	45	34	70	35

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Number of children living at home'

Appendix 7.21

	None	One	Two	Three
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	88	24	31	9
Environmental factors and good resources	13	4	3	0
Supportive colleagues	35	5	21	2
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	14	4	6	0
Interested and supportive parents	9	2	2	0
Positive organisational influences	3	0	1	0
Children making good progress	37	7	12	4
Good salary or remuneration	5	0	0	0
Good training opportunities	6	2	11	1
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	20	1	9	1
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	53	17	27	0
Positive influences from external bodies	3	0	4	0
Total	286	66	127	17

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Number of children living at home'

Appendix 7.22

	None	One	Two	Three
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	60	14	20	10
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	27	8	14	0
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	15	2	11	1
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	4	6	1	0
Lack of interest or support from parents	12	0	6	1
Negative organisational influences	10	2	2	0
2				
Children making little or no progress	9	2	4	1
Poor salary or remuneration	23	1	6	0
Inadequate training opportunities	4	1	6	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	14	0	5	0
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	104	19	26	2
Negative influences from external bodies	28	3	18	0
Total	310	58	119	15

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Qualifications'

Appendix 7 .23

	Over seas Trained	Cert. Ed	B.Ed/ BAEd	PGCE	QTS	Masters	Doctor ate
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	2	6	44	66	9	9	16
Environmental factors and good resources	0	1	2	16	0	0	1
Supportive colleagues	0	5	13	24	5	9	7
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	0	3	9	9	2	1	0
Interested and supportive parents	0	0	2	6	0	2	3
Positive organisational influences	0	1	0	2	0	0	1
Children making good progress	0	4	22	22	5	4	3
Good salary or remuneration	0	0	1	4	0	0	0
Good training opportunities	0	4	7	4	1	4	0
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	0	0	10	12	4	3	2
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	1	6	23	43	7	9	8
Positive influences from external bodies	0	0	5	1	0	0	1
Total	3	30	138	209	33	41	42

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Qualifications'

Appendix 7.24

	Over seas Trained	Cert. Ed	B.Ed/ BAEd	PGCE	QTS	Masters	Doctor ate
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	0	5	31	41	7	7	13
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	1	4	20	21	1	2	0
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	0	0	15	8	1	3	2
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	2	0	2	2	3	0	2
Lack of interest or support from parents	0	1	4	6	1	4	3
Negative organisational influences	0	1	7	5	0	1	0
2							
Children making little or no progress	1	1	1	11	1	0	1
Poor salary or remuneration	0	0	11	10	4	4	1
Inadequate training opportunities	0	2	5	2	1	1	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	0	0	9	4	3	1	2
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	1	8	55	52	14	10	11
Negative influences from external bodies	0	1	21	15	3	6	3
Total	5	23	181	177	39	39	38

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Length of service'

Appendix 7 .25

	< 5 years	5 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21 – 30 years	> 30 years
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	31	36	61	22	2
Environmental factors and good resources	10	2	6	2	0
Supportive colleagues	24	17	15	6	1
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	10	6	6	1	1
Interested and supportive parents	5	2	5	1	0
Positive organisational influences	2	2	0	0	0
Children making good progress	25	7	18	10	0
Good salary or remuneration	0	1	4	0	0
Good training opportunities	8	5	3	4	0
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	14	5	6	5	1
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	25	31	26	8	7
Positive influences from external bodies	2	2	2	0	1
Total	156	116	152	59	13

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Length of service'

Appendix 7.26

	< 5 years	5 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21 – 30 years	> 30 years
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	32	21	32	16	3
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	24	9	9	5	2
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	12	4	9	1	3
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	1	1	5	2	2
Lack of interest or support from parents	12	2	2	3	0
Negative organisational influences	6	3	4	0	1
Children making little or no progress	1	8	5	1	1
Poor salary or remuneration	4	9	8	6	3
Inadequate training opportunities	4	3	2	2	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	9	0	5	4	1
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	42	29	50	23	7
Negative influences from external bodies	20	5	14	9	1
Total	167	94	145	72	24

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Length of time in current school'

Appendix 7 .27

	< 5 years	5 to 10 years	11 – 20 years	> 20 years
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	99	36	15	2
Environmental factors and good resources	16	3	1	0
Supportive colleagues	39	17	6	1
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	12	6	6	0
Interested and supportive parents	8	2	2	1
Positive organisational influences	2	0	1	1
Children making good progress	35	16	9	0
Good salary or remuneration	4	1	0	0
Good training opportunities	7	8	5	0
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	23	6	2	0
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	47	33	14	3
Positive influences from external bodies	4	1	2	0
Total	296	129	63	8

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Length of time in current school'

Appendix 7.28

	< 5 years	5 to 10 years	11 – 20 years	> 20 years
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	69	23	10	2
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	27	14	8	0
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	14	5	10	0
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	4	6	0	1
Lack of interest or support from parents	6	10	3	0
Negative organisational influences	8	3	3	0
Children making little or no progress	13	3	0	0
Poor salary or remuneration	19	7	4	0
Inadequate training opportunities	3	2	6	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	7	10	2	0
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	81	43	26	1
Negative influences from external bodies	20	13	16	0
Total	271	139	88	4

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Role in current school'

Appendix 7.29

	NQT	TPS	M1	M2	LPS	UPS	Consultant
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	20	50	58	19	4	1	0
Environmental factors and good resources	1	7	9	3	0	0	0
Supportive colleagues	4	24	23	3	9	0	0
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	1	6	6	6	2	3	0
Interested and supportive parents	2	7	3	0	1	0	0
Positive organisational influences	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
Children making good progress	6	23	13	12	4	2	0
Good salary or remuneration	1	4	0	0	0	0	0
Good training opportunities	2	4	7	3	4	0	0
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	5	7	12	4	3	0	0
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	14	21	32	13	15	2	0
Positive influences from external bodies	3	2	1	1	0	0	0
Total	60	155	165	64	43	9	0

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with 'Role in current school'

Appendix 7.30

	NQT	TPS	M1	M2	LPS	UPS	Consultant
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	18	42	16	16	10	2	0
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	4	13	19	8	5	0	0
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	4	9	12	2	2	0	0
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	0	0	5	5	1	0	0
Lack of interest or support from parents	1	8	7	0	3	0	0
Negative organisational influences	3	9	1	1	0	0	0
Children making little or no progress	1	3	10	2	0	0	0
Poor salary or remuneration	6	9	6	6	2	1	0
Inadequate training opportunities	1	1	5	3	1	0	0
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	1	6	7	1	4	0	0
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	9	61	47	24	10	0	0
Negative influences from external bodies	3	16	16	8	6	0	0
Total	51	177	151	76	44	3	0

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with Ethnicity

Appendix 7.31

	Black Caribbean	Chinese	Indian	Mixed Race	Other	Pakistani	White European	White Other	White UK
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	3	0	1	18	9	2	6	4	109
Environmental factors and good resources	0	0	0	5	1	0	2	0	12
Supportive colleagues	0	0	0	6	2	2	0	0	53
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	21
Interested and supportive parents	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	12
Positive organisational influences	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
Children making good progress	0	0	3	2	1	2	0	0	52
Good salary or remuneration	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3
Good training opportunities	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	18
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	30
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	1	0	0	2	12	0	0	4	78
Positive influences from external bodies	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6
Total	6	0	5	37	25	6	10	11	396

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with Ethnicity

Appendix 7.32

	Black Caribbean	Chinese	Indian	Mixed Race	Other	Pakistani	White European	White Other	White UK
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	4	0	1	12	5	1	1	2	78
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	0	1	0	5	0	0	0	3	40
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	3	22
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	7
Lack of interest or support from parents	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	17
Negative organisational influences	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	12
Children making little or no progress	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	11
Poor salary or remuneration	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	3	22
Inadequate training opportunities	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	8
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	17
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	1	0	4	11	3	0	1	5	126
Negative influences from external bodies	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	43
Total	8	1	6	44	9	2	7	22	403

Table displaying motivational response categories

cross-tabulated with Religion

Appendix 7 .33

	Christianity	Hinduism	Islam	No religion
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	105	1	4	42
Environmental factors and good resources	11	0	0	9
Supportive colleagues	37	0	2	24
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	14	0	1	9
Interested and supportive parents	8	0	0	5
Positive organisational influences	3	0	0	1
Children making good progress	40	3	2	15
Good salary or remuneration	3	0	0	2
Good training opportunities	14	1	0	5
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	15	0	1	15
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	70	0	3	24
Positive influences from external bodies	6	0	1	0
Total	326	5	14	151

Table displaying demotivational response categories

cross-tabulated with Religion

Appendix 7.34

	Christianity	Hinduism	Islam	No religion
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	71	1	3	29
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	34	0	2	13
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	16	0	4	9
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	4	1	0	6
Lack of interest or support from parents	14	0	1	4
Negative organisational influences	9	0	1	4
Children making little or no progress	12	0	0	4
Poor salary or remuneration	13	0	3	14
Inadequate training opportunities	9	0	0	2
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	14	0	1	4
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	83	4	4	60
Negative influences from external bodies	33	0	1	15
Total	312	6	20	164

Appendix 7.35

INITIAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:	**School:**

Answers to the following questions are needed to inform this research into Teacher Motivation. Previous research has suggested that all of the following have an impact on the issue.

1. **Gender** Male Female (circle as appropriate)

2. **Age** 20 – 30 31 – 40 41 – 50 over 50 (circle as appropriate)

3. **Marital Status** single married with partner (circle as appropriate)

4. **Ages of children living a home** _____

5. **Position in school** Unqualified NQT MPS M1 M2
Advanced Skills Leadership Scale (circle as appropriate)
Other _____(give details)

6. **Teaching Qualifications** Unqualified, Cert Ed., B.Ed, PGCE, QTS, Masters
(circle as appropriate)
Other_____(give details)

7. **No of years teaching** _____

Length of time in current school _____ years

8. **Religion** Christian, Muslim, Sikh, Hindu, Buddhist, No religion (circle as appropriate)
Other_____(give details)

9. **Ethnic Origin** White UK, White European, White Other, Indian, Bangladeshi, Chinese, Pakistani, Other Asian, Black Caribbean, Black African, Black Other, Mixed Race (circle as appropriate) Other _____(give details)

THANK YOU for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.
Please return it to me in the envelope provided, via the headteacher, or directly to me in the envelope provided.

Appendix 7.36

INITIAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:	**School:**

Answers to the following questions are needed to inform this research into Teacher Motivation. Previous research has suggested that all of the following have an impact on the issue.

1. **Gender** Male (Female) (circle as appropriate)

2. **Marital Status** single (married) with partner (circle as appropriate)

3. **Ages of children living a home** _____

4. **Position in school** Unqualified NQT (TPS) M1 M2
Advanced Skills Leadership Scale (circle as appropriate)
Other Co-ordinator (give details)

5. **Teaching Qualifications** Unqualified, Cert Ed., B.Ed, (PGCE), QTS, Masters
(circle as appropriate)
Other G Mus (give details)

6. **No of years teaching** 10

Length of time in current school 6 years

7. **Religion** (Christian), Muslim, Sikh, Hindu, Buddhist, No religion (circle as appropriate)
Other _____ (give details)

8. **Ethnic Origin** White UK, White European, White Other, Indian, Bangladeshi, Chinese, Pakistani, Other Asian, ~~Black~~ Caribbean, Black African, Black Other, Mixed Race
(circle as appropriate) (Other) _____ (give details)

THANK YOU for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.
Please return it to me in the envelope provided, via the headteacher Peter Westlake or directly to myself via the LEA's internal mail system.

Rosemary Addison

Appendix 7.37

MOTIVATION DIARY

Name:	**Week beginning:**

All diary entries will be treated in the strictest confidence.

- At the beginning of each day circle 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 to indicate your feelings: (1) being positive and motivated and (5) demotivated and negative.
- Use the boxes to describe any incidents during the day that you felt were **(a)** motivational and (b) demotivational. **(If there is insufficient space in the boxes provided, please write on the back of this form)**
- Circle 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 indicating your feelings at the end of the day

	Start of Day	**Motivational**	**De-motivational**	End of the Day
Mon	**1 2 3 4 5**			**1 2 3 4 5**
Tues	**1 2 3 4 5**			**1 2 3 4 5**
Weds	**1 2 3 4 5**			**1 2 3 4 5**
Thurs	**1 2 3 4 5**			**1 2 3 4 5**
Fri	**1 2 3 4 5**			**1 2 3 4 5**

As soon as you have finished please return it to me in the envelope provided, via the headteacher, or direct to me in the envelope provided.

THANK YOU for taking the time to complete this diary.

Please tick the box if you would like a summary of the findings ☐

Appendix 7.38

MOTIVATION DIARY

Name:	Week beginning: 14/1/02

All diary entries will be treated in the strictest confidence.

- At the beginning of each day circle 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 to indicate your feelings: (1) being positive and motivated and (5) de-motivated and negative.
- Use the boxes to describe any incidents during the day that you felt were **(a)** motivational and (b) de-motivational. **(If there is insufficient space in the boxes provided, please write on the back of this form)**
- Circle 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 indicating your feelings at the end of the day

	Start of Day	Motivational	De-motivational	End of the Day
Mon	1 2 3 4 5	The children were really happy to see me BB	Some children did not bring their P.E kit after repeatedly reminding them last week. B	1 2 3 4 5
Tues	1 2 3 4 5	Children had a brilliant swimming lesson. BB They behaved well BB to & from the baths & on the coach	A boy I'd been working with on appropriate behaviour for some time, hit another child. B	1 2 3 4 5
Weds	1 2 3 4 5	Parent told me I was doing a good job with her troublesome child. M	Felt irritable with children's lack of motivation in maths - M	1 2 3 4 5
Thurs	1 2 3 4 5	Not in school today. Went on a science course which was very informative M	One of the things that bother me is the lack of time to cover everything on the curriculum. This course reinforced my frustration at being expected to cover too many things - M	1 2 3 4 5 T
Fri	1 2 3 4 5	Its Friday. Was able to organise myself chair for next weeks rehearsal (that had been overlooked) quite quickly! M	3 boys persistent interruptions while I was trying to teach. B	1 2 3 4 5

As soon as you have finished please return it to me in the envelope provided, via the headteacher Peter Westlake or direct to myself via the LEA's internal mail system.

THANK YOU for taking the time to complete this diary.

Please tick the box if you would like a summary of the findings ☐

Rosemary Addison

Appendix 7.39

Interview Schedule

Name: **School:** **Post:**

Prior to starting

- *Put the interviewee at ease by encouraging them to talk a little about themselves in general e.g. So you take a Year 3 class... how long have you been doing that?*
- *Interviewer to introduce herself, sharing a little of her own background*
- *Thank the interviewee for agreeing to take part, and give a brief outline of the research.*
- *Explain briefly how the interviewee has been chosen.*
- *'Ask' the interviewee if they have any objection to notes being taken as they speak.*
- *Explain that the interview is likely to take about 30 mins. and that there will be an opportunity to ask any questions at the end.*
- *Assure interviewee and their school of confidentiality/anonymity.*

1. Why did you take up teaching as a career

2. Would you take up teaching as a career if you were 22 again? Why?

3. What advice would you give to someone considering teaching as a career now? Why?

4. What are your plans for your career now? How long do you intend to remain in the profession? Why?

5. What do you like about teaching? Why?

6. What do you like least? Why?

7. What advice would you give the Prime Minister about improving the recruitment and retention of teachers in this country? What makes you suggest that?

8. Have you ever considered teaching abroad? Why? Why not?

9. Was the week recorded in your diary representative of your feelings at this time? If not – how was it different? Why was it different?'

Ask the interviewee to think of a time when they felt exceptionally good about their job. It may be something very minor, but equally it could be something large scale.

10. Tell me what happened. Was what happened typical of what was happening at the time? Could it happen again?

11. How seriously were your feelings (good or bad) about your job affected by what happened? Pick a number on a scale of 1 to 11 to indicate how strong those feelings were? Note: 1 should be used for something that hardly affected your feelings and 11 if your feelings were seriously affected.

Now the interviewee should be asked to describe a time when they felt exceptionally demotivated about their job. It may be something very minor, but equally it could be something large scale.

12. Tell me what happened. Was what happened typical of what was going on at the time? Could it happen again?

13. How seriously were your feelings (good or bad) about your job affected by what happened? Pick a number on a scale of 1 to 11 to indicate how strong those feelings were? Note: 1 should be used for something that hardly affected your feelings and 11 if your feelings were seriously affected.

14. Do you have any other comments that you would like to make, on the subject of Teacher Motivation?

15. Are their any questions you would like to ask me?

For validation purposes

16. Do you have any comments about the format of the questionnaire, the diary format or even this interview?

Thank the interviewee again for taking part.

Explain that

- *they will be sent a summary of their comments for checking. This should be returned to the researcher with any amendments/additions if their views have not been accurately represented.*
- *they will be sent a summary copy of the findings as soon as it has been compiled.*

Appendix 7.40

Interview Schedule

Name: *XXXXXXX* **School:** *XXXXXXX* **Post:Y5 Classtacher ICT M1**

1. Why did you take up teaching as a career?

When I was 17/18 I helped out in a Junior School, and helped to teach football.

I could see that the job would be varied and different each week.

2. Would you take up teaching as a career if you were 22 again? Why?

I started off as a Graphic Designer, but I found myself doing the same each day. Then I moved into teaching. I don't like all the paperwork, it's a lot of work and the money is not good.

3. What advice would you give to someone considering teaching as a career now? Why?

A friend of mine has just done a PGCE. I told him that you have really got to want to teach. You can't really find out what it's like until you're doing it. My friend said I was right about that.

4. What are your plans for your career now? How long do you intend to remain in the profession? Why?

I don't want to be a headteacher. I like being in the classroom because you really get to know the children. I haven't really thought about it.

5. What do you like about teaching? Why?

The sociable nature of the job.

It's nice working with the children.

It is unpredictable.

6. What do you like least? Why?

Unnecessary paperwork – some of the planning is repetitive e.g copying information from the scheme of work.

The work load, you don't get much time to yourself.

7. What advice would you give the Prime Minister about improving the recruitment and retention of teachers in this country? What makes you suggest that?

He needs to listen to teachers about the problems they face.

He needs to do something about children's behaviour, the money teachers are paid and the workload. Ten per cent non-contact time would help.

8. Have you ever considered teaching abroad? Why? Why not?

No I have too many ties. I f I did I would go to the US – teachers there get 20% non-contact time.

Ask the interviewee to think of a time when you felt exceptionally good about your job.

9. Tell me what happened. Was what happened typical of what was happening at the time? Could it happen again?

This week I was really pleased. I gave my Y5 class last year's SAT's paper, and 5 out of 25 have already achieved Level 5.

10. How seriously were your feelings (good or bad) about your job affected by what happened? Pick a number on a scale of 1 to 11 to indicate how strong those feelings were? Note: 1 should be used for something that hardly affected your feelings and 11 if your feelings were seriously affected.

Nine (9)

Now that you have described something a time when you felt satisfying about your job, please think of another time, one during which you felt exceptionally de-motivated.

1. Tell me what happened. Was what happened typical of what was going on at the time? Could it happen again?

You can only fit half the class in our ICT Suite. I have recently spent a lot of my own time researching improvements and now I have just found out there is insufficient money to fund the project.

2. How seriously were your feelings (good or bad) about your job affected by what happened? Pick a number on a scale of 1 to 11 to indicate how strong those feelings were? N.b. 1 should be used for something that hardly affected your feelings and 11 if your feelings were seriously affected.

Nine (9)

16. Do you have any other comments that you would like to make, on the subject of Teacher Motivation?

It's good here. Everyone is very supportive. We work as a team.

For validation purposes

0. What are your views on the format of the questionnaire?

0. What are your views on the format of the diary?

I hadn't realised that my motivation levels went up and down in the way that they did.

Appendix 7.41

Categories and codes used for Analysis

B	Children behaving badly or showing lack of interest
BB	Children well motivated, interested or well behaved
E	Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources
EE	Positive environmental factors and good resources
F	Unsupportive or critical colleagues
FF	Supportive colleagues
H	Negative influences from teacher's personal life
HH	Positive influences from teacher's personal life
I	Lack of interest or support from parents
II	Interested and supportive parents
O	Negative organisational influences
OO	Positive organisational influences
P	Children making little or no progress
PP	Children making good progress
S	Poor salary/remuneration
SS	Good salary or remuneration
T	Inadequate training opportunities
TT	Good training opportunities
V	Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance exercise autonomy
VV	Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy
W	Long hours and high workload e.g. meetings, marking, planning
WW	A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task
X	Negative influences from external bodies.
XX	Positive influences from external bodies

Examples of responses categorised as Motivational
Appendix 7.42

BB	*I have a well motivated class.* *All of my lessons went as planned, with the children working well.* *Producing beautifully finished pieces of work in Art.*
EE	*New books.* *£1000 to spend for my Maths budget.* *Good session in the Computer suite – the printers were working.*
FF	*Schools need to think about the personalities involved when making appointments.* *I like it here – the staff are a similar age.* *There is a good support structure, and I have a mentor.*
HH	*Got a new radio for my car.* *A fantastic sunrise.* *Had a doughnut.*
II	*Positive conversation with a generally negative parent.* *Parent told me I was doing a good job with her troublesome child.* *I agreed some behaviour parameters with the parents.*
OO	*Started new project.* *The revised Early Years Curriculum is making a difference.* *School ran smoothly yesterday.*
PP	*It is those tiny occasions when you're in class, and the children finally 'get it' – something clicks.* *I worked with the whole class doing paste and water patterns. My less able children did very well.*
SS	*Teaching is a good job to fit in with the family.* *I know when I have a family, I can go part time.* *The pay is quite good.*
TT	*Attended Tutor Head Group for NQTs.* *On a course in Dulwich – felt great all day.* *Had the chance to work with a colleague to help improve discipline.*
VV	*It is different every day.* *It is better teaching in a Primary school because you get to teach a variety of subjects.* *The curriculum is more flexible during the Early Years.*
WW	*It is a chance to work with children.* *I enjoy passing knowledge on.* *Had a fantastic P.E. lesson.*
XX	*We are going to approach an external advisor.* *Teachers are highly esteemed in Canada.* *Good observation from school inspector.*

Examples of responses categorised as Demotivational
Appendix 7.43

B	*Had to keep some children in today.* *Lots of complaints at playtime from the children not playing nicely today.* *Two pupil incidents to follow up tomorrow.*
E	*A classroom assistant should be attached to each class for a minimum of 5hrs.* *Computers not printing.* *Two lessons of EAL (English as an Additional Language) support is not enough.*
F	*Some unnecessary comments from colleagues.* *Leaving work for a supply to do, and it not being done.* *A misunderstanding with a Learning Support Assistant's husband. I know I did the right thing but he was upset.*
H	*Family Funeral.* *Feeling unwell.* *Traffic was a nightmare.*
I	*The parents refused to accept a responsibility and complained their child was not being heard enough at school.* *A particularly difficult parent – that no one can manage.* *His parents say all the right things, but don't do anything.*
O	*SATs practice* *Playground duty and my turn to do assembly – no break.* *I am not in favour of all this 'inclusion' in main scheme.*
P	*I had spent ages explaining to one of my EAL children about the Queen Mother's funeral, and then afterwards he said, 'What funeral?' He clearly had understood nothing.* *Practice SATs Maths papers – unfortunately results of 3 EAL pupils were even lower than expected.* *Very few grasped the point in English.*
S	*A housing scheme for non-buyers would be helpful.* *The pay is not very good.* *Increase the London Allowance*
T	*Too long sitting and listening.* *The INSET was utter' tripe.'* *Course boring and not relevant to early years.*
V	*The National Literacy Strategy is too prescriptive.* *Time is so tight – we are not able to use our skills in a creative way.* *I would like more freedom, things to be less formal.*
W	*I don't like the paperwork.* *Having a long staff meeting at the end of the day.* *I don't like the long hours that you have to spend working at school.*
X	*OFSTED comes in to check on teachers.* *I don't like all these Government initiatives and all these documents that keep arriving.* *He (the Prime Minister) needs to ensure that our achievements as teachers are congratulated.*

Appendix 7.44

Calculation of standard deviation in relation to years in current school

Motivational issues

	BB	EE	FF	HH	II	OO	PP	SS	TT	VV	WW	XX		
< 5yrs	99	16	39	12	8	2	35	4	7	23	47	4	296	No. of responses
	33.44594595	5.405405	13.17568	4.054054	2.702702703	0.675676	11.82432	1.351351	2.364865	7.77027	15.87838	1.351351	8.333333	Mean percentage
	630.8107408	8.553254	23.48057	18.28371	31.66647487	58.58868	12.2103	48.70154	35.58284	0.313297	56.97802	48.70154	**9.008658**	Standard deviation
5 to 10 yrs	36	3	17	6	2	0	16	1	8	6	33	1	129	No. of responses
	27.90697674	2.325581	13.17829	4.651163	1.550387597	0	12.4031	0.775194	6.20155	4.651163	25.5814	0.775194	8.333333	Mean percentage
	383.2580184	36.05304	23.50596	13.53384	45.96314434	69.3889	16.59015	57.0751	4.530298	13.53384	297.6106	57.0751	**9.211035**	Standard deviation
11 to 20 yrs	15	1	6	6	2	1	9	0	5	2	14	2	63	No. of responses
	23.80952381	1.587302	9.52381	9.52381	3.174603175	1.587302	14.28571	0	7.936508	3.174603	22.22222	3.174603	8.333333	Mean percentage
	239.6156574	45.46398	1.425181	1.425181	26.57811643	45.46398	35.47053	69.3889	0.154836	26.57812	192.9938	26.57812	**7.698141**	Standard deviation
> 20 years	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	8	No. of responses
	25	0	12.5	0	12.5	12.5	0	0	0	0	37.5	0	8.333333	Mean percentage
	277.8889	69.3889	17.3889	69.3889	17.3889	17.3889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	850.8889	69.3889	**11.78511**	Standard deviation
													496	Total responses

Demotivational issues	B	E	F	H	I	O	P	S	T	V	W	X		
< 5yrs	69	27	14	4	6	8	13	19	3	7	81	20	271	No. of responses
	25.46125461	9.9631	5.166052	1.476015	2.21402214	2.95203	4.797048	7.01107	1.107011	2.583026	29.8893	7.380074	8.333333	Mean percentage
	293.4798846	2.667014	10.01057	46.97711	37.40518518	28.92257	12.48175	1.739576	52.17157	33.02771	464.8034	0.90236	**9.058093**	Standard deviation
5 to 10 yrs	23	14	5	6	10	3	3	7	2	10	43	13	139	No. of responses
	16.54676259	10.07194	3.597122	4.316547	7.194244604	2.158273	2.158273	5.035971	1.438849	7.194245	30.93525	9.352518	8.333333	Mean percentage
	67.51518746	3.034363	22.40013	16.10781	1.289940319	38.09021	38.09021	10.85063	47.48796	1.28994	510.9974	1.045543	**7.948791**	Standard deviation
11 to 20 yrs	10	8	10	0	3	3	0	4	6	2	26	16	88	No. of responses
	11.36363636	9.090909	11.36364	0	3.409090909	3.409091	0	4.545455	6.818182	2.272727	29.54545	18.18182	8.333333	Mean percentage
	9.202949587	0.578983	9.20295	69.3889	24.21534628	24.21535	69.3889	14.32278	2.285594	36.69055	450.0955	97.05832	**8.198812**	Standard deviation
> 20 years	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	No. of responses
	50	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	0	8.333333	Mean percentage
	1736.3889	69.3889	69.3889	277.8889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	69.3889	277.8889	69.3889	**15.59024**	Standard deviation
													502	Total responses

Appendix 7.44
Calculation of standard deviation in relation to the age of children living at home

Motivational issues

	BB	EE	FF	HH	II	OO	PP	SS	TT	VV	WW	XX		
None	92	15	40	15	10	3	39	5	7	25	59	4	314	No. of responses
	29.29936306	4.77707	12.7388535	4.777070064	3.184713376	0.955414	12.42038	1.592357	2.2	7.96	19	1.3	8.333333	Mean percentage
	439.714187	12.62331	19.43798921	12.62331113	26.47397445	54.384518	16.73123	45.39584	37	0.14	109	50	8.286208	Standard deviation
5 years and under	10	2	7	5	0	0	3	0	4	2	20	0	53	No. of responses
	18.86792453	3.773585	13.20754717	9.433962264	0	0	5.660377	0	7.5	3.77	38	0	8.333333	Mean percentage
	111.0478534	20.76092	23.79046639	1.218732681	69.3889	69.3889	7.126885	69.3889	0.6	20.8	865	69	10.51815	Standard deviation
6 -11 years	11	0	3	0	0	0	6	0	2	1	3	1	27	No. of responses
	40.74074074	0	11.11111111	0	0	0	22.22222	0	7.4	3.7	11	3.7	8.333333	Mean percentage
	1050.456115	69.3889	7.734579012	69 3889	69.3889	69.3889	192.9938	69.3889	0.9	21.4	7.7	21	11.72433	Standard deviation
12 - 17 years	27	3	9	4	1	1	10	0	6	2	11	2	76	No. of responses
	35.52631579	3.947368	11.84210526	5.263157895	1.315789474	1.3157895	13.15789	0	7.9	2.63	14	2.6	8.333333	Mean percentage
	739.6395925	19.20746	12.33488338	9.405520499	49.19914931	49.199149	23.30857	69.3889	0.2	32.5	38	32	9.462917	Standard deviation
18 years and over	12	0	4	0	2	0	2	0	1	1	4	0	26	No. of responses
	46.15384615	0	15.38461538	0	7.692307692	0	7.692308	0	3.8	3.85	15	0	8.333333	Mean percentage
	1430.643338	69.3889	49.76759822	69.3889	0.406651479	69.3889	0.406651	69.3889	20	20,1	50	69	12.643	Standard deviation
													496	Total responses

Demotivational issues

	B	E	F	H	I	O	P	S	T	V	W	X		
None	60	27	16	4	12	10	9	22	4	15	107	32	318	No. of responses
	18.86792453	8.490566	5.031446541	1.257861635	3.773584906	3.1446541	2.830189	6.918239	1.3	4.72	34	10	8.333333	Mean percentage
	111.0478534	0.025781	10.88045492	50.01514105	20.76091851	26.887812	30.24792	1.993069	50	13,1	641	3	8.939248	Standard deviation
5 years and under	6	4	3	4	1	1	1	2	1	0	21	1	45	No. of responses
	13.33333333	8.888889	6.666666667	8.888888889	2.222222222	2.2222222	2.222222	4.444444	2.2	0	47	2.2	8.333333	Mean percentage
	25.03334444	0.312357	2.766677778	0.31235679	37.30494938	37.304949	37.30495	15.09754	37	69.4	###	37	12.14199	Standard deviation
6 -11 years	6	4	0	1	1	0	3	2	1	3	9	4	34	No. of responses
	17.64705882	11.76471	0	2.941176471	2.941176471	0	8.823529	5.882353	2.9	8.82	26	12	8.333333	Mean percentage
	86.80758512	11.7972	69.3889	29.03941903	29.03941903	69.3889	0.243571	5.990976	29	0.24	329	12	7.482519	Standard deviation
12 - 17 years	28	10	10	0	2	2	2	2	3	0	5	6	70	No. of responses
	40	14.28571	14.28571429	0	2.857142857	2.8571429	2.857143	2.857143	4.3	0	7.1	8.6	8.333333	Mean percentage
	1002.9889	35.47053	35.47053265	69 3889	29.95216531	29.952165	29.95217	29 95217	16	69.4	1.4	0.1	10.60794	Standard deviation
18 years and over	4	4	0	2	3	1	1	2	2	1	9	6	35	No. of responses
	11.42857143	11.42857	0	5.714285714	8.571428571	2.8571429	2.857143	5.714286	5.7	2.86	26	17	8.333333	Mean percentage
	9.601144898	9.601145	69.3889	6.841961224	0.058287755	29.952165	29.95217	6.841961	6.8	30	302	78	6.945692	Standard deviation
													502	Total responses

Appendix 7.45
Calculation of Chi-squared
MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS - All schools
relative to Marital Status

		Obs.Freq.	Exp.Freq.	Chi. Squ.	No.of Respi	No. of staff
Children well motivated, interested or well behaved	single	68	54.81967213	3.168954428	152	22
	married	71	74.75409836	0.188528185	152	30
	partner	13	22.42622951	3.962048222	152	9
Environmental factors and good resources	single	7	7.213114754	0.006296572	20	22
	married	10	9.836065574	0.00273224	20	30
	partner	3	2.950819672	0.000819672	20	9
Supportive colleagues	single	28	22.72131148	1.22636198	63	22
	married	28	30.98360656	0.287310261	63	30
	partner	7	9.295081967	0.566686905	63	9
Positive influences from teacher's personal life	single	6	8.655737705	0.814828614	24	22
	married	16	11.80327869	1.492167577	24	30
	partner	2	3.540983607	0.670613236	24	9
Interested and supportive parents	single	5	4.68852459	0.020692422	13	22
	married	8	6.393442623	0.403699033	13	30
	partner	0	1.918032787	1.918032787	13	9
Positive organisational influences	single	2	1.442622951	0.215350224	4	22
	married	2	1.967213115	0.000546448	4	30
	partner	0	0.590163934	0.590163934	4	9
Children making good progress	single	21	21.63934426	0.018889717	60	22
	married	34	29.50819672	0.683752277	60	30
	partner	5	8.852459016	1.67653309	60	9
Good salary or remuneration	single	4	1.803278689	2.676005961	5	22
	married	1	2.459016393	0.86568306	5	30
	partner	0	0.737704918	0.737704918	5	9
Good training opportunities	single	8	7.213114754	0.085842027	20	22
	married	12	9.836065574	0.476065574	20	30
	partner	0	2.950819672	2.950819672	20	9
Opportunity for flexibility and to exercise autonomy	single	13	11.18032787	0.296163646	31	22
	married	16	15.24590164	0.037299489	31	30
	partner	2	4.573770492	1.448322463	31	9
A sense of achievement, job completed or an enjoyable task	single	30	34.98360656	0.709942078	97	22
	married	66	47.70491803	7.016258239	97	30
	partner	1	14.31147541	12.38134941	97	9
Positive influences from external bodies	single	5	2.524590164	2.427187567	7	22
	married	2	3.442622951	0.604527713	7	30
	partner	0	1.032786885	1.032786885	7	9
		496		**51.66096653**		

Calculation of Chi-squared
DEMOTIVATIONAL FACTORS - All schools
relative to Marital Status

		Obs.Freq.	Exp.Freq.	Chi. Squ.	No.of Resp	No. of staff
Children badly behaved or showing lack of interest	single	55	37.50819672	8.157235183	104	22
	married	42	51.14754098	1.636002522	104	30
	partner	7	15.3442623	4.537638363	104	9
Poor environmental factors or inadequate resources	single	25	17.67213115	3.038550443	49	22
	married	20	24.09836066	0.697000112	49	30
	partner	4	7.229508197	1.442660124	49	9
Un-supportive or critical colleagues	single	18	10.45901639	5.43707282	29	22
	married	10	14.26229508	1.273789335	29	30
	partner	1	4.278688525	2.512405	29	9
Negative influences from teacher's personal life	single	2	3.967213115	0.975477578	11	22
	married	7	5.409836066	0.487411823	11	30
	partner	2	1.62295082	0.087597284	11	9
Lack of interest or support from parents	single	11	6.852459016	2.510353753	19	22
	married	8	9.344262295	0.193385102	19	30
	partner	0	2.803278689	2.803278689	19	9
Negative organisational influences	single	7	5.049180328	0.753725782	14	22
	married	7	6.885245902	0.001912568	14	30
	partner	0	2.06557377	2.06557377	14	9
Children making little or no progress	single	6	5.770491803	0.009128167	16	22
	married	9	7.868852459	0.162602459	16	30
	partner	1	2.360655738	0.784266849	16	9
Poor salary or remuneration	single	17	10.81967213	3.530278192	30	22
	married	9	14.75409836	2.244098361	30	30
	partner	4	4.426229508	0.041044323	30	9
Inadequate training opportunities	single	6	3.967213115	1.04159328	11	22
	married	5	5.409836066	0.031048187	11	30
	partner	0	1.62295082	1.62295082	11	9
Limited opportunity for flexibility or chance to exercise autonomy	single	10	6.852459016	1.445760452	19	22
	married	9	9.344262295	0.012683348	19	30
	partner	0	2.803278689	2.803278689	19	9
Long hours and high workload e.g. marking, meetings, planning	single	70	54.45901639	4.434934515	151	22
	married	72	74.26229508	0.068917599	151	30
	partner	9	22.27868852	7.914450114	151	9
Negative influences from external bodies	single	19	17.67213115	0.099774932	49	22
	married	27	24.09836066	0.349381064	49	30
	partner	3	7.229508197	2.474406156	49	9
		502		**67.66166776**		

Appendix 7.46
Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Qualifications (a)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	3	3	1	0	0
Cert.Ed.	2	8	30	3.75	2	0	0
B.Ed/BAEd	3	22	138	6.272727273	4	-1	1
PGCE	4	19	209	11	6	-2	4
QTS	5	6	33	5.5	3	2	4
Masters	6	4	41	10.25	5	1	1
Doctorate	7	1	42	42	7	0	0
Total							10

n equals 7
r equals **0.821428571**

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	5	5	2	-1	1
Cert.Ed.	2	8	23	2.875	1	1	1
B.Ed/BAEd	3	22	181	8.227272727	4	-1	1
PGCE	4	19	177	9.315789474	5	-1	1
QTS	5	6	39	6.5	3	2	4
Masters	6	4	39	9.75	6	0	0
Doctorate	7	1	38	38	7	0	0
Total							8

n equals 7
r equals **0.857142857**

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Qualifications (b)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	3	3	1	0	0
Cert.Ed.	2	8	30	3.75	2	0	0
QTS	3	6	33	5.5	3	0	0
B.Ed/BAEd	4	22	138	6.272727273	4	0	0
PGCE	5	19	209	11	6	-1	1
Masters	6	4	41	10.25	5	1	1
Doctorate	7	1	42	42	7	0	0
Total							2

n equals 7
r equals **0.964285714**

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	5	5	2	-1	1
Cert.Ed.	2	8	23	2.875	1	1	1
QTS	3	6	39	6.5	3	0	0
B.Ed/BAEd	4	22	181	8.227272727	4	0	0
PGCE	5	19	177	9.315789474	5	0	0
Masters	6	4	39	9.75	6	0	0
Doctorate	7	1	38	38	6	1	1
Total							3

n equals 7
r equals **0.946428571**

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Qualifications (c)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	3	3	1	0	0
Cert.Ed.	2	8	30	3.75	2	0	0
QTS	3	6	33	5.5	3	0	0
PGCE	4	19	209	11	6	-2	4
B.Ed/BAEd	5	22	138	6.272727273	4	1	1
Masters	6	4	41	10.25	5	1	1
Doctorate	7	1	42	42	7	0	0
Total							6
n equals	7						
r equals	**0.892857143**						

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
Overseas	1	1	5	5	2	-1	1
Cert.Ed.	2	8	23	2.875	1	1	1
QTS	3	6	39	6.5	3	0	0
PGCE	4	19	177	9.315789474	5	-1	1
B.Ed/BAEd	5	22	181	8.227272727	4	1	1
Masters	6	4	39	9.75	6	0	0
Doctorate	7	1	38	38	7	0	0
Total							4
n equals	7						
r equals	**0.928571429**						

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Role in school (a)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents	*No of responses*	Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	60	10	6	-5	25
TPS	2	19	155	8.157894737	4	-2	4
UPS	3	2	9	4.5	2	1	1
M1	4	20	165	8.25	5	-1	1
M2	5	9	64	7.111111111	3	2	4
Consultant	6	1	0	0	1	5	25
LPS	7	4	43	10.75	7	0	0
							60

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.071428571**

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	51	8.5	5	-4	16
TPS	2	19	177	9.315789474	6	-4	16
UPS	3	2	3	1.5	2	1	1
M1	4	20	151	7.55	3	1	1
M2	5	9	76	8.444444444	4	1	1
Consultant	6	1	0	0	1	5	25
LPS	7	4	44	11	7	0	0
							60

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.071428571**

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Role in school (b)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	60	10	6	-5	25
TPS	2	19	155	8.157894737	4	-2	4
M1	3	20	165	8.25	5	-2	4
M2	4	9	64	7.111111111	3	1	1
UPS	5	2	9	4.5	2	3	9
Consultant	6	1	0	0	1	5	25
LPS	7	4	43	10.75	7	0	0
							68

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.214285714**

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	51	8.5	5	-4	16
TPS	2	19	177	9.315789474	6	-4	16
M1	3	20	151	7.55	3	0	0
M2	4	9	76	8.444444444	4	0	0
UPS	5	2	3	1.5	2	3	9
Consultant	6	1	0	0	1	5	25
LPS	7	4	44	11	7	0	0
							66

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.178571429**

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient - Role in school (c)

Motivational	x	No. of respondents		Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	60	10	6	-5	25
TPS	2	19	155	8.157894737	4	-2	4
UPS	3	2	9	4.5	2	1	1
M1	4	20	165	8.25	5	-1	1
M2	5	9	64	7.111111111	3	2	4
LPS	6	4	43	10.75	7	-1	1
Consultant	7	1	0	0	1	6	36
							72

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.285714286**

Demotivational	x	No of respondents	No of responses	Average response	y	d	dd
NQT	1	6	51	8.5	5	-4	16
TPS	2	19	177	9.315789474	6	-4	16
UPS	3	2	3	1.5	2	1	1
M1	4	20	151	7.55	3	1	1
M2	5	9	76	8.444444444	4	1	1
LPS	6	4	44	11	7	-1	1
Consultant	7	1	0	0	1	6	36
							72

n equals	7
r equals	**-0.285714286**